

NOVEMBER

1955

Vol. LIII, No. 8



University Microfilms
313 N 1st Street
Ann Arbor Michigan

The CATHOLIC EDUCATIONAL *Review*

IN THIS ISSUE

DEVELOPING KNOWING HABITS

ESSENTIAL SERVICES IN GUIDANCE

IDEAL AND ACTUAL IN TESTS

HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH AND MORALS

News and Comments

Book Reviews



UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

The CATHOLIC
UNIVERSITY
of AMERICA



OUTSTANDING McGRAW-HILL BOOKS

PSYCHOLOGY IN EDUCATION

By HERBERT SORENSON, University of Kentucky. *McGraw-Hill Series in Education*. Third edition. 577 pages, \$5.50.

Presenting a comprehensive interpretation of the fundamental psychological facts, principles and theories applying to education, this highly practical third edition has been thoroughly revised and brought up to date. The book includes many classroom examples, classroom situations, classroom learning, classroom adjustments, and classroom situations in general. Emphasis is placed on growth and development, with equal stress on physical, mental, and social growth.

THE EDUCATION OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

By ARCH O. HECK, Ohio State University. *McGraw-Hill Series in Education*. Second Edition. 513 pages, \$6.00.

The book covers the education of socially, physically, and mentally exceptional children—gifted as well as handicapped. The physically exceptional include those defective in vision, those defective in hearing, cripples, speech defectives, and the delicate child. The mentally exceptional include the slow learner and the gifted. As before, the author deals primarily with such problems as discovery, prevention, and special needs for educating such children, and includes all the latest developments and progress in theory practice, programs, and equipment.

CATHOLICS IN PSYCHOLOGY: A Historical Survey

By HENRYK MISIAK, Fordham University and VIRGINIA M. STAUDT, Hunter College. *McGraw-Hill Series in Psychology*. 319 pages, \$5.00.

Here is a historical portrait of the pioneering Catholic psychologists here and abroad who introduced psychology into Catholic circles as a scientific study independent of philosophy. It surveys the contributions of these men, and indicates the psychological problems of particular interest to Catholics, showing how they have been solved by Catholic psychologists in the past and today.

SPEECH IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

By MARDEL OGILVIE, Queens College. *McGraw-Hill Series in Speech*. 320 pages, \$4.50.

This general method book suggests ways to promote effective oral communication in the elementary school classrooms; emphasizes the relationship between speech activities and the language arts program; and indicates the part the teacher can play in improving the speaking habits of the elementary school child, alone and in conjunction with the school specialist. One of the outstanding features of the book is the inclusion of bibliographies of contemporary children's literature which may be used in developing the various speech activities.

Send for copies on approval



McGRAW - HILL BOOK COMPANY, INC.

330 West 42nd Street

New York 36, N.Y.

In answering advertisements please mention **THE REVIEW**

The CATHOLIC EDUCATIONAL *Review*



RT. REV. J. A. GORHAM, S.T.L., M.A.

Editor in Chief

RT. REV. F. HOULAHAN, S.T.D., Ph.D. SR. MARY BRIDEEN, O.S.F., Ph.D.,

Associate Editor

Associate Editor

SR. MARY VERNICE, S.N.D., M.A.,

Associate Editor

REV. JAMES A. MAGNER, Ph.D.,

Managing Editor

Vol. LIII

November, 1955

No. 8

CONTENTS

COLLEGE EDUCATION—FOR WHAT HABITS?	505
Herbert Johnston	
THE PUPIL PERSONNEL PROGRAM'S ESSENTIAL SERVICES	514
James J. Cribbin	
EVALUATION: THE IDEAL AND THE ACTUAL	533
Robert B. Nordberg	
A SUMMARY OF VIEWS ON ENGLISH IN THE CATHOLIC HIGH SCHOOL ..	547
Sister Marie Emmanuel, S.C.	
THE CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY RESEARCH ABSTRACTS	557
HIGHER EDUCATION NOTES	560
SECONDARY EDUCATION NOTES	562
ELEMENTARY EDUCATION NOTES	564
NEWS FROM THE FIELD	567
BOOK REVIEWS	569
BOOKS RECEIVED	574
NEWS OF PRODUCTS AND SERVICES	576

Published monthly September through May by The Catholic Education Press, The Catholic University of America, Washington 17, D.C. Subscription price: yearly, \$4.00; single number, 50 cents. Indexed in The Catholic Periodical Index, The Education Index and The Guide to Catholic Literature. Entered as second class matter at the Post Office, Washington, D.C.

Business communications, including subscriptions and changes of address, should be addressed to The Catholic Educational Review, The Catholic University of America, Washington 17, D.C. Please address all manuscripts and editorial correspondence to the Editor in Chief, 302 Administration Building, The Catholic University of America, Washington 17, D.C.

Trade-mark registered in U. S. Patent Office
Copyright, 1955, by The Catholic Education Press

THE REVIEWERS SPEAK!

ENGLISH IN THE CATHOLIC SECONDARY SCHOOL

by

SISTER MARY JANET MILLER \$2.50

"Topics discussed: the place of composition and literature in education; meeting individual differences; what the college may expect; English and the apostolate; the teacher, the taught, and the material; importance of method; the teaching of composition; oral English; the professional role of the National Council of Teachers of English and writing for tomorrow. Summaries of seminars include: skill in writing, promoting growth in reading, the speech program, reading for appreciation, high-school publications, and composition and literature."

The Bulletin September, 1955

CREATIVE ART

by

SISTER ESTHER NEWPORT \$2.75

"... recommended especially to pastors and educators as an introduction to the problems and potentialities of creative art."

Worship September, 1955

SPECIAL EDUCATION OF THE EXCEPTIONAL CHILD

by

REV. WILLIAM F. JENKS \$2.00

"In each discussion, the specific type of exceptionality is defined: the mentally retarded child; the socially maladjusted child, the child with speech defects; the gifted child; the visually handicapped child; the child with auditory difficulties; the undervitalized child; and various types of physical handicap. Present philosophies concerning treatment are presented and recommendations for home and school are discussed. . . . Detailed analyses of specific areas of exceptionality are provided, and definite aims and techniques for guidance are suggested."

Child Development Abstracts and Bibliography,
Vol. 28, Nos. 1 & 2 1954

AN ALTERNATIVE CLASSIFICATION FOR CATHOLIC BOOKS

by

JEANNETTE MURPHY LYNN and REV. GILBERT C. PETERSON \$10.00

"The introduction to the schedules, which appears in the new edition, discusses the specific problems in classing theological and ecclesiastical literature. Aside from its usefulness for scholarly Catholic libraries, where it is indispensable, the book offers features unusual in a specialized classification. The orderly and comprehensive presentation of this field of scholarship is an indispensable reference work for other libraries and scholars. . . . A unique feature of the work is provision for three alternative notations, so that the schedules may be integrated in whole or in part in any classification scheme. Full explanations of adaptation are given on pages 25-30." *The Library Quarterly* July, 1955
"These schedules should prove exceedingly valuable in all Catholic libraries, specially in those possessing considerable collections of religious literature. They will have a strong reference appeal also to non-Catholic libraries; particularly for the rather full treatment of individual Catholic religious writers in BQ, the official bodies of the Holy See in BQV, and Monastic and religious orders in BQX."

Journal of Cataloging and Classification July, 1955

CHURCH-STATE RELATIONSHIPS IN EDUCATION IN CONNECTICUT, 1633-1953

by

SISTER MARY PAUL MASON \$3.50

"It deserves a place on the shelf with the best works on the relation of government to religion in the libraries of all who are interested in this timely and timeless problem."

The Catholic Historical Review July, 1955

Send Your Order Today to:

The Catholic University of America Press
620 MICHIGAN AVE., N.E. WASHINGTON 17, D.C.



Everything for the Theatre

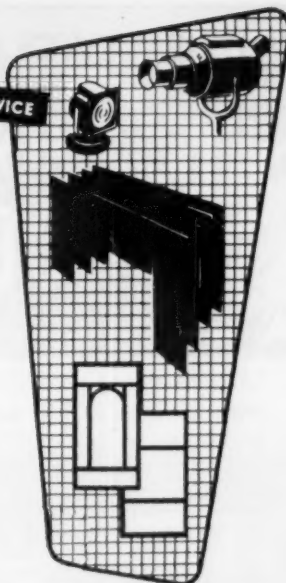
TRAVELER TRACKS
STAGE CURTAINS
CYCLORAMAS
SPOT LIGHTS
BORDER LIGHTS
FOOTLIGHTS
FOLLOW SPOTS
SWITCHBOARDS
SOUND EQUIPMENT

RIGGING
SCENERY
PAINTS
BRUSHES
STAGE HARDWARE
COSTUMES
MAKE UP
GELATINE
SOUND EFFECTS

THEATRE SERVICE

WORKING MODELS
SPECIFICATIONS
CONSULTATION
PLANS

PRODUCTION SERVICE



PLEASE WRITE FOR CATALOGUE

THEATRE PRODUCTION SERVICE

45 WEST 46TH STREET

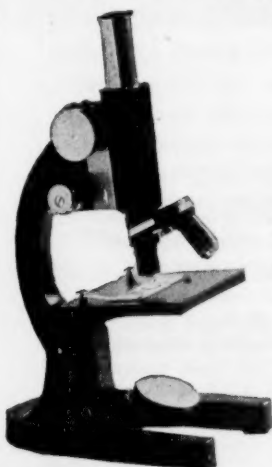
NEW YORK CITY-36

CIRCLE 5-5870

NEW MICROSCOPES

ALL METAL - - - FULL FINE ADJUSTMENT

Most foolproof of all student models.



← Model GB2

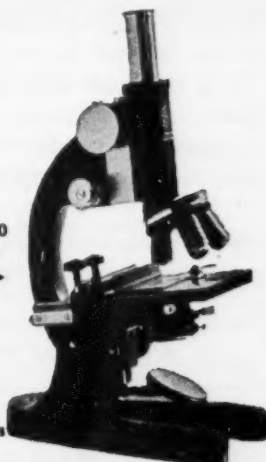
10X Ocular
Objectives:
16 mm. (10X)
4 mm. (44X)
Plano/concave Mirror
Full fine adjustment
Disc Diaphragm

\$118.00

Case if desired \$8.00

MODEL GKM3 →

Medical-Bacteriological
5X and 10X Oculars
Objectives:
16 mm. (10X)
4 mm. (44X)
1.8 mm. oil immersion)
Abbe Condenser with Iris
GRADUATED mechanical
stage



MODEL GKM3

Write for descriptive circular
listing safety features.

**Carrying Case
\$255.00**


Any quantity old microscope
accepted in trade.

THE GRAF-APSCO COMPANY

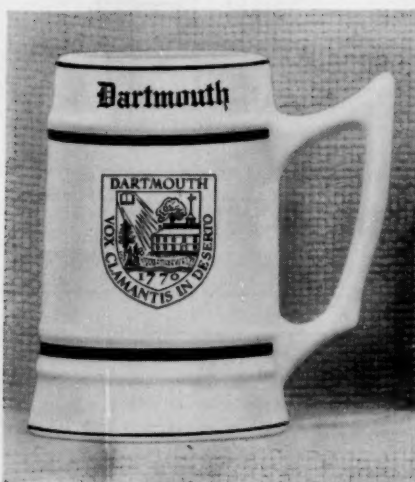
5868 Broadway

Chicago 40, Illinois

THE *Fastest Selling* **COLLEGE MUG**



BUNTING MUGS ARE SOLD BY OVER 1400 COLLEGE BOOKSTORES—EVERYWHERE!



M-20 MUG — SIZE 5½" TALL • 3½" DIAMETER • 20-oz. CAPACITY
AVAILABLE IN BLACK, WHITE AND DARK BLUE FINISH.

Mugs in WHITE finish are decorated with choice of any ONE color or gold on bands with College name and seal permanently fired in the glaze in 22 kt. gold. All decoration and bands on mugs in BLACK or DARK BLUE finish are in 22 kt. gold only.

- Our mugs are FIRST quality CHINA-WARE and are hand decorated by skilled craftsmen.
- Minimum order — Two dozen mugs.
- \$21.00 doz. f.o.b. Wellsville, Ohio.
- Orders shipped in 3 weeks or less.
- College stores shipped open account 2% 10 days, 30 net.
- Prices subject to change without notice.



Send Your Order Today to:

W. C. BUNTING CO. • WELLSVILLE, O.

1955 IS OUR 75th YEAR • NACS ASSOCIATE MEMBER

WRITE FOR CATALOG LISTING 35 OTHER POTTERY ITEMS AVAILABLE FOR COLLEGES

COLLEGE EDUCATION— FOR WHAT HABITS?

By Herbert Johnston*

IN A RECENT ANTHOLOGY devoted to the exposition of various philosophies of education, Professor Jacques Maritain has made another of his invaluable contributions to this subject.¹ Under such headings as "Educational Aims and Values," "Educational Process," and "School and Religion," Professor Maritain first explains the philosophical principles involved in the consideration of each topic and then moves on to their practical application.

In one of these sections devoted to practical application, he points up the distinction between natural intelligence and the intelligence perfected by those habits which are intellectual virtues. And he contends that the aim of liberal education at the high school and college levels is essentially to develop the natural intelligence on an infra-scientific level—"what Plato would have called 'right opinion'"²—and thus to *prepare* for the development of intellectual virtues such as science. Basic liberal education has as its objective the grasp of the *meaning* of science, or art, or wisdom, the understanding of its nature and scope, rather than the acquisition of that intellectual habit itself.³

A little later, Professor Maritain somewhat modifies this position. He distinguishes more sharply the level of the high school from that of the college; and he suggests that the latter could "make basic liberal education fully efficacious" by concerning itself also with "the beginnings and first development of a given intellectual virtue or a given intellectual skill" as a form of pre-professional training.⁴

This last point, this modification of the natural intelligence doctrine, should be developed and insisted upon, lest a mis-

*Herbert Johnston, Ph.D., is an associate professor in the Department of Philosophy at the University of Notre Dame.

¹ Jacques Maritain, "Thomist Views on Education," *Modern Philosophies and Education*, Fifty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1955), pp. 57-90.

² *Ibid.*, p. 61.

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 79-80.

⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 81-82.

understanding arise concerning the practical application of the earlier distinction between natural intelligence and intelligence perfected by intellectual virtues. For the proper aim of college teaching, or so this paper will contend, is the actual development on the part of students of intellectual habits, and, where the subject matter admits of it, the development of science and not merely of opinion, even of right opinion.

THE AIM OF CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION

As used here, of course, "education" will refer to that activity properly carried on by the educational agency which is the school, and more particularly, the liberal college. More particularly yet, "education" will here leave out of account the physical development of the student fostered by athletic programs, and his spiritual development fostered by opportunities for daily Mass and Communion, by retreats, and by the general religious atmosphere of the Catholic college. The term "education" will be restricted to that intellectual development which is the specific, though not the exclusive, aim of classroom instruction.

The immediate problem, then, is to consider whether the teacher's work in the classroom is to aim at the development in and by the students of intellectual habits or only at preparing for their later development; and, if it is to develop habits, whether these should be habits of science properly speaking or of opinion only.

In the doctrine of St. Thomas, "habit . . . signifies a certain quality which informs and perfects a potency."⁵ The investigation of habit should, then, according to the demands of this doctrine, proceed by way of an analysis of potency and act, between which habit stands as a medium.⁶ A reading of Book IX of the *Commentary on the Metaphysics* and of Article 1 of the *De Virtutibus in Communi* yields an explanation which may be briefly summarized as follows:

Potency corresponds to act and can be known only through that correspondence. There are, in general, two kinds of act

⁵ St. Thomas Aquinas, *In II Sent.*, dist. 24, q. 1, *solutio*.

⁶ For a brief, clear discussion of this subject, see Vernon J. Bourke, "The Role of Habitus in the Thomistic Metaphysics of Potency and Act," *Essays in Thomism*, ed. R. E. Brennan (New York: Sheed and Ward, 1942), pp. 103-109.

to which there consequently correspond two kinds of potency: there is first act, or form, to which there corresponds the potency for existence; and there is second act, or operation, to which there corresponds the potency for operation.

Between first act and the potency for existence there stand no natural entitative habits properly speaking. In the body there may be such habitual disposition⁷ as health and beauty, and in the soul there may be that supernatural habit which is habitual grace. However important, none of these is the sort of habit whose development the college teacher as such may reasonably aim at in the classroom.

To second act there corresponds the potency for operation. This potency, in turn, may be of two kinds. Active operational potency changes something other, and is itself a virtue properly speaking; examples would be the agent intellect and the bodily powers. Passive operational potency is changed by something other, and receives a passion; examples would be sight and hearing. Active operational potency cannot receive a habit, that is, it cannot be informed by a perfecting quality which is a principle of act, because it is already a principle of act by its very nature. Passive operational potency cannot receive a habit because the quality which it receives from its actuating principle does not inform the potency but remains only while the operation in question is being performed; it belongs to that species of quality which is a passion rather than a habit.

Between active and passive operational potency there stand those potencies which are rational by their very nature (the possible intellect), or which may come within the control of reason (the will and the sense appetites). These differ from purely active potency in that, to serve as a principle of act, they must be actuated by an active principle. They differ from purely passive potency in that they are not determined to only one sort of operation but may be used well or badly, and in that they receive not just a passion but a form that remains after the operation in question has ceased and that makes further operation of the same kind easier. Such forms are habits, qualities of the soul that produce stable accidental changes, that constitute in

⁷ This is the term St. Thomas uses when he is speaking with strict attention to exactness; at other times he calls them habits in a broad sense.

their possessor what is literally a second nature. Such habits stand midway between potency and act; they are act in relation to pure, undetermined potency, but are potency in relation to second act which is perfect operation.

Men perform human acts by means of their powers, among others, of intellect, will, and sense appetites; if these powers can be improved by qualities inhering in them as forms, those men will perform their human acts more easily, efficiently, and surely. And since any end, including man's last end, must be achieved by means of human acts, the development of such habits will necessarily be a primary aim of the educational process.

There is no need to describe here the various good habits or virtues of which man is capable; the distinction between the intellectual and the moral virtues, between those of the speculative and those of the practical intellect, and between the acquired and the infused moral virtues may be taken as common knowledge. The development of the moral virtues in men is the work of many educational agencies, of which the school is one. The school, as such, should and can fruitfully aim at the development of moral virtue chiefly outside the classroom through its connection with the Church and through its common life and general atmosphere. Within the classroom which remains true to its nature, moral virtues can be developed only secondarily and indirectly, though very effectively, through the example, attitudes, and personality of the teacher. Directly and immediately, the job of the teacher is to teach, to assist his students to grow in knowledge and intellectual ability.

THE FUNCTION OF THE TEACHER

And just what is it to teach? As St. Thomas explains it, to teach is to lead someone to know something.⁸ The teacher may do this in one of two ways. First, he may propose an intelligible object which the student can know either because the object is self-evident or because the student can himself do the reasoning that is necessary to enable him to see the object as a conclusion in the light of self-evident principles. Second, he may propose

⁸ See St. Thomas Aquinas, *Quaestiones disputatae de veritate*, q. 11 (De magistro); *In II Sent.*, dist. 9, q. 1, a. 2, ad 4.

an intelligible object for whose understanding he must lead the student through a middle term which is better known to the student.

The operation of acquiring knowledge and developing intellectual habits is much like that of acquiring health. Sometimes the operation of nature alone is sufficient to accomplish the transition from sickness to health by recovery; it may also be sufficient to accomplish the transition from ignorance to knowledge by discovery. At other times nature, the principal agent, requires the assistance of a physician, whose function as instrumental agent is to provide through his art the means by which nature may remove the illness; it may likewise require the assistance of a teacher for the supplying of the means by which it may remove ignorance. The student remains the principal agent and must reach the conclusions himself; the teacher, however, is a real though an instrumental agent, for he not only places the student before the intelligible object, but, in the second meaning of teaching, leads him to see it for himself.

To teach, then, is to lead the student to new knowledge through his own discursive reasoning, this reasoning being itself suggested and guided by the teacher. When the student is thus led to see a conclusion as necessarily involved in a self-evident principle, he is developing the habit of science; and the repetition of such acts strengthens the habit in him to an indefinite degree. When the principle in question is the first one in some particular order of knowledge, the habit developed is one of the particular sciences; when it is the first absolutely, the habit developed is wisdom. When the teacher proposes for the student's consideration truths which either cannot be or are not on that occasion reduced to self-evident principles, he is not inducing science in the student but either opinion or faith. By opinion the student holds a conclusion as probable; by faith he holds it as certain. But in neither case does he *see* its necessity.⁹

THE PROPER WORK OF THE COLLEGE

What should a teacher in a liberal college aim at having his students achieve—wisdom, science, opinion, faith, art, factual

⁹ See St. Thomas Aquinas, *Summa theologiae*, II-II, 1, 4, c; I-II, 67, 3, c; I, 79, 9, ad 4; *In III Sent.*, dist. 23, q. 2, a. 2, q. 3, c.

data? There is room, and indeed a necessity, for all of these, according to the maturity and interests of the student and according to the nature of the truths involved. But in each case the teacher must know what he is aiming at and why, for if he confuses one of these results with another, nothing of any value at all will occur. Given the student to be taught at the undergraduate level and the various disciplines in which he is instructed in a liberal college, how should the teacher go about his task?

It would seem that logic, grammar, and composition could best be taught to undergraduates as liberal arts rather than as the speculative sciences which they also are.¹⁰ At this level the student needs to know *how to make* an argument or a paragraph rather than be introduced to the intricacies of symbolic logic or philology. At this stage he needs to know and can learn the art; he does not need to know and cannot adequately learn the science.

In the teaching of literature, whether in the English or in a foreign language, the task seems to be somewhat different. In this field the student is to be led to grasp an intelligible object by a sort of intuitive perception that is certainly not the result of any rational process through which a teacher can lead him. What the teacher can do is to make this operation somewhat easier by removing biographical, historical and other obstacles to understanding. Ultimately the teacher must rely on the luminosity, on the beauty and truth of the literary work itself and its appeal to the student's natural intelligence; exhaustive grammatical or rhetorical analysis and dissection simply kill any possibility of appreciation. Again, what is proper to and useful in graduate courses and learned literary journals has no place in an undergraduate liberal college.

The social sciences and history, including history of culture and the arts, will require another approach, because here it is possible to see conclusions in their principles, to see results in their causes, sometimes necessarily and sometimes only probably. Much of the work of these, as of other disciplines, will consist in the student's mastering factual material. This operation in-

¹⁰ See Bernard I. Mullahy, "The Nature of the Liberal Arts," *The New Scholasticism*, XXIII, 4 (October, 1949), 361-386.

volves a twofold benefit. First, it supplies indispensable raw material without which further development in the field is impossible. Second, it develops habits in the interior sensitive powers of the imagination and the memory and perhaps also in the cogitative power;¹¹ and all of these powers play a large part in further intellectual development.

Where the aim is to lead the student to see results in their causes, teaching should always look to getting an answer to the question *why* on the level appropriate to the student's maturity and abilities. For example, a study of the causes of World War I on the most elementary level might be restricted to the statement of the assassination of an Austrian archduke. The same study with more advanced students, perhaps those in a secondary school, might involve the distinction between an occasion and a cause, and some notion of the background of Balkan politics. For undergraduates this consideration could be broadened and deepened to include cultural, economic, and other factors. The graduate school might appropriately go into some of the more abstruse elements of Serbian nationalism. All these are different *levels* of knowledge but not different *kinds* of knowledge. If history is in any sense a science, then that science was being developed to some degree from the first and most elementary answer to the question *why*. Examples drawn from such a social science as economics might support this conclusion even more firmly.

In the physical and biological sciences the same sort of effort should be made to lead the student to see some intelligible necessity in the relation between conclusion and principle. There are many levels at which the relation between heat and the expansion of metal may be investigated, some of which are appropriate to high school students, others to students in a liberal college, and others to students in a graduate or professional school. To the extent that inductive sciences are truly sciences, the student at any of those levels is actually developing and not merely preparing for the habit of science. This is the manner of developing the natural intelligence of the student which is proper to this subject matter; the differences will be in the degree only.

¹¹ See St. Thomas Aquinas, *Summa theologiae*, I-II, 50, 3, ad 3.

The same is true, and perhaps more obviously so, of mathematics. Once the preliminaries have been mastered, to teach mathematics as anything less than an exact science is to do violence to its object. The ordinary undergraduate need not necessarily become familiar with the intricacies of number theory or the infinitesimal calculus. But if he learns only the first book of Euclid he must learn it demonstratively, that is, scientifically, or he cannot be said to have learned it at all.

In philosophy and theology, too, there are possible various depths of penetration. It is a commonplace that the aim of an undergraduate course in a liberal college is not to develop the professional theologian or metaphysician. Yet here, again, the choice is among different degrees of the development of that habit which is the intellectual virtue of science or even of wisdom; it is not between science on the one hand and opinion or faith on the other.

THE FUTILITY OF OPINION OUTCOMES

In a text which is central for this problem, St. Thomas explains that a disposition can be distinguished from a habit in two ways. In the first way, a disposition differs from a habit as the imperfect differs from the perfect in the same species; this same quality is called a disposition when it exists in us in such a way that it can be easily lost, and is called a habit when it exists in us in such a manner that it cannot be easily lost. A disposition of this kind can become a habit as a boy becomes a man. In the second way, a disposition differs from a habit specifically; that quality which is called disposition in this sense, such as sickness and health (and opinion), is called such because from its very nature it has *changeable causes*, whereas that quality which is called habit, such as science and moral virtue, is called such because from its very nature it has *unchangeable causes*. A disposition of this kind cannot become a habit, because the two are different specifically.¹²

A disposition in the first sense is science imperfectly possessed and easily lost; but it is truly science because its causes are unchangeable. A disposition in the second sense is opinion; how-

¹² *Ibid.*, I-II, 49, 2, ad 3; I-II, 57, 2, ad 3; I-II, 55, 4, c, in which he explains why opinion cannot be called an intellectual virtue.

ever long it may remain, it can never be developed into science because its causes are changeable. If the teacher begins with a problem which the student understands and is interested in, and then leads him by discussion to reach a conclusion which is related to a principle on however elementary a level, a beginning of science has been accomplished, that beginning perhaps appropriate to the undergraduate level but allowing of further development in later life. But if the teacher begins with a problem and then either leaves it unresolved or leaves the student in doubt or confusion about the reasons why a certain conclusion should be held, no beginning of science has been accomplished that would make possible any further development. The use of a discussion method that becomes its own end instead of a useful method of attacking certain kinds of problem; the use of rhetoric that aims merely at persuading when demonstration is possible; the resolving of conclusions into principles whose nature (for example, philosophical or theological) is undifferentiated and confused in the student's mind—all these are sure ways to vitiate the proper work of the liberal college and to guarantee that the student will get little more, intellectually, from his years in college than some sound advice from his elders. And he need not come to college to get that.

To stop at opinion is to make impossible any further development by way of understanding that deepens with study and experience, for there has been no understanding to begin with. On whatever level is proper to the undergraduate in those disciplines allowing of it, some degree of the development of science, some habit of resolving conclusions into principles, is the only goal of teaching that can justify the existence of that institution which is the college. And it is the only possible preparation for the further habit of resolving conclusions into absolutely first principles, that habit of Christian wisdom which is the crown and the ideal of the Catholic liberal college.

THE PUPIL PERSONNEL PROGRAM'S ESSENTIAL SERVICES

By James J. Cribbin*

THE NATURE of the guidance process has been examined with an ingenuity which is at times exceeded only by the repetitiveness of the analyses presented. Authoritative works range from theoretical considerations of principles to practical "how-to-do-it-yourself" manuals. Differences in purpose and background have lead authorities to stress this or that aspects of the total program or to concentrate on problems of organization, personnel or practices. They have inevitably given rise to futile attempts to define guidance in terms acceptable to all, wearying discussions of the so-called kinds of guidance, and numbing arguments as to the role of guidance in the school. Earl J. McGrath, former U.S. Commissioner of Education, well described the situation when he declared that the lack of an adequate understanding of what should constitute an efficient pupil personnel program arose chiefly from the fact that there has never been a meeting of minds on the part of leaders in the field.¹

Although there is no concensus as to what the "ideal" guidance program should include, the debates have not been in vain. An analysis of recent texts indicates an encouraging acceptance of a common denominator of basic services. Thus, the Conference on Pupil Personnel Services in Elementary and Secondary Schools, called by the U.S. Office of Education in 1951, determined that an adequate program should include the following services: (1) child accounting and attendance; (2) orientation; (3) counseling; (4) clinical services, including remediation of speech, reading, hearing and visual defects; (5) individual analysis; (6) health; (7) home-school-community; (8) placement and follow-up; (9) occupational and educational informa-

*James J. Cribbin, Ph.D., is an associate professor in the School of Education at Fordham University.

¹U.S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, *Pupil Personnel Services in Elementary and Secondary Schools*, Circular No. 325, 1951 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1951), p. 1.

tion; and (10) services closely related to personnel services, including student activities, group activities and special education.

Four recent books, Froehlich (1950),² Smith (1951),³ Hamrin (1953),⁴ Hatch and Dressel (1953),⁵ all agree that the student-inventory, the information, the counseling, and the placement and follow-up services are essential. Moreover, Froehlich and Smith are of one mind with reference to the importance of the evaluation service, while Hamrin and Froehlich both stress the significance of the orientation and articulation service. The services proposed are actually those put forward by Warters (1946),⁶ although her nomenclature in terms of helping the individual be understood, counseling the individual, socializing the individual, helping the individual progress through supplementary services, and studying and improving personnel work, is somewhat more general.

The advantages of thinking of the pupil personnel program in terms of facilitating services are several: (1) it prevents another error of educational metonymy in identifying the total program with what is in fact but one aspect of that program; (2) it restricts the scope of guidance work to a limited area in which success is possible without "taking over" other school activities which are already being efficiently performed; (3) it acts as a brake on the personnel worker's tendency to spread himself all over the educational landscape; (4) because the services can be defined in relatively precise terms, this approach allows for the delegation of specific responsibilities, division of labor based on competence, and mutual co-operation; (5) it safeguards the guidance worker from being reduced to the level of a mere clerk or educational handyman; and (6) it delimits the program in terms of aims, content, and procedures, which in turn serve as criteria for evaluating personnel activities.

² Clifford P. Froehlich, *Guidance Services in Smaller Schools* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1950).

³ Glenn E. Smith, *Principles and Practices of the Guidance Program* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1951).

⁴ S. A. Hamrin, *Initiating and Administering Guidance Services* (Bloomington, Ill.: McKnight & McKnight, 1953).

⁵ Raymond N. Hatch and Paul L. Dressel, *Guidance Services in the Secondary School* (Dubuque: Wm. C. Brown Co., 1953).

⁶ Jane Warters, *High-School Personnel Work Today* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1946).

"Guidance," like "Adjustment," is a noun to be reckoned with. When, however, a scrutiny of the literature reveals apparently serious discussions of such nonentities as "guidance in the meaning of change," "guidance in thoughtfulness and co-operation," and "guidance in democratic living," one may wonder whether this hermaphroditic process of multiplying the kinds of guidance has not deprived the term of any hard core of meaning. For these reasons, therefore, it is most productive, for the present at least, to think of personnel work in terms of facilitating services to students, distinct from, but not separated from, administrative and instructional activities. The writer feels that the essential services in the secondary school personnel program are the following: (1) the student inventory service; (2) the information service; (3) the counseling service; (4) the group development service; (5) the moral development service; (6) the remedial services; (7) the placement and follow-up service; (8) the service to administrators, teachers, and parents; and (9) the research and evaluation service.

THE STUDENT INVENTORY SERVICE

Education has had more than its fair share of clichés apropos of the need for knowing the student before attempting to help him. For all their threadbareness, such adages as "Learn your students before you teach them," "Start where you find them," and "Seeing through Johnny in order that Johnny may see himself through," highlight the importance of a careful study of the individual as a necessary first step in guidance. In common with butcher, baker, and candlestick maker, the personnel worker courts humiliating failure if he neglect to become familiar with the nature of the entity with which he works. Theoretical knowledge of the adolescent will not suffice, important though it may be. There is need for specific information about each student which has been secured from every reliable source through the utilization of every valid technique available. In addition, it is essential that this information be synthesized and forwarded systematically to all who are responsible for the best development of the student.

In this matter, Jones has pointed out a wholesome truth: "The world would be far in advance of what it is today if we all acted

only upon what *facts* we have. Let us, then, get whatever facts we can about a student, but let us be sure that they are facts and not opinions about facts."⁷ There is in every school a fund of data about each student which is rarely effective either because it has been gathered so planlessly or systematized in so disorganized a manner as to be of use to nobody. The result is that at present much advice is being given students not on the basis of a true picture of their development but rather on that of a surrealist caricature, limned from scraps and tatters of haphazard data blended with generous daubs of opinion and prejudice.

The student inventory service, therefore, seeks to collect such facts about the student as may maximize our efforts to minimize the number of human errors he will make. The generic types of information which are desirable include all data pertinent to the student as a person, his home and environmental background, his moral development, his social status, his educational and vocational plans, his academic achievement. Among the means generally employed to gather this information the following are most important: (1) objective measures of the individual's abilities, aptitudes, interests and adjustment; (2) estimates of teachers, homeroom and club sponsors; (3) student self-descriptions as revealed by autobiographies, questionnaires, self-rating, and checklists; (4) interviews; (5) home visitations; (6) follow-up studies. In short, the methods range from casual corridor conversations to formalized case conferences.

There is a type of personnel worker for whom the amassing of statistics is an endless source of satisfaction. It must never be forgotten that this process is but a means to an end. If it result in knowledge rather than understanding, or lead to a ledger of the student's abilities rather than insight into his potentialities for good, then we have but succeeded in dissecting him ever so delicately and sterilely. Therefore, in carrying out the mechanics of this service, the following principles should guide the worker: (1) the desideratum is a comprehensive picture of the varied aspects of the student's development; (2) all who are in a position to do so must be given systematic opportunities to

⁷ Arthur J. Jones, *Principles of Guidance* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1951), pp. 132-33.

make significant contributions; (3) those who gather data should seek facts not a hodgepodge of impression paprikaed with bias; (4) procedures whereby data are collected and recorded should be so routinized so as not to obscure the purposes for which they are instituted; (5) channels of communication must be kept open so that the pool of information may be a shared pool on the part of all who are in a position to use it for the good of students.

THE INFORMATION SERVICE

If every right has a corollary responsibility, then the personnel worker dare not analyze the student unless he is also ready to supply him with such help as the inventory indicates to be necessary. The quantity and quality of required data necessarily vary with the individual differences of students. However, since men are more alike than different, certain common areas exist in which at some time or other all students will stand in need of specific informational help. These areas included the following:

Health.—The aim of this type of information is to assist the student in coping with the problems of his physical development, to help him accept his body as it is, to overcome remediable deficiencies and to deal positively with those which are unalterable. Since the objective is a sound mind in a sound body, the informational service as a guidance function is most concerned with the reactions of the student to his physical self. If there is not engendered an optimistic attitude towards his somatic limitations on the part of the student, then there is a real danger lest he have neither sound body nor sound mind. Only secondarily is this service interested in such health minutiae as the need for exercise, diet, overweight, and underweight.

Educational.—Three kinds of educational information are important for each student: (1) that which will enable him to be an academic success in school; (2) that which will facilitate his efforts to be an all-round success in school; and (3) that which will assist him after he finishes his schooling. The first category of information should include such necessities as knowledge of the aims of the school, the educational program, choosing major curriculum sequences and electives, good study habits, how to take notes, write reports and succeed in examinations, how to read more effectively, how to give oral reports, how to avoid

failure or to profit from it when it does occur.

Under the second classification might be listed such items as adjustment to the school, its regulations and traditions, how to get along with teachers and schoolmates, the benefits of participating in cocurricular and service organizations in the school. Finally, the third type of information deals with postschool educational planning. It should therefore include at least such topics as the need and method of making an educational plan, pertinent college information and criteria for selecting a college, part-time schooling and training opportunities for the noncollege group, sources of scholarships and student aid, and other resources of information which the student can investigate on his own initiative.

Vocational.—The vocational information of which the student stands in need is of two major types: (1) information necessary while in school and (2) that which will help him in his post-school endeavors. During his school career the pupil must have accurate information with reference to the problem of combining study and work without slighting either, how to budget his funds, and how to use the summer vacation profitably. More important is it, however, that he not only recognize the vocational implications of his academic work but that he come to look upon working as an other valid form of education. With reference to the second class of data, students need such information as will help them appreciate the importance and the methodology of formulating a vocational plan, how to secure and evaluate occupational information, how to choose, prepare for, enter upon, and progress in the vocations of their choice.

Personal.—Although in this area, perhaps more than in any other, the amount of information needed varies with individual differences, even here there are common problems. Each student is striving to develop a balanced and wholesome personality. All therefore require that type of information which will help them gain greater insight into their own makeup and attain to emotional maturity. Accordingly, students should be informed of the dangers involved in habitual daydreaming, the defense mechanisms and the use of adjustive rather than adaptive means for meeting reality.

Social-civic.—Under this heading it would be well to have

at the student's disposal information dealing with the following three segments of his social-civic life: (1) the student and his peer groups, (2) the student and his family relations, and (3) the student and the community. How can I be accepted, if not actually popular? How can I make new friends without neglecting my old friends? How can I learn to participate happily in social groups? to converse intelligently? to entertain? to dance? to be interesting while out on a date? to act according to the basic rules of etiquette? These are frequent questions for which students want answers. Of greater import, however, is the need for the student to develop his leadership potential, to spend his leisure time advantageously and to get along with superiors while avoiding the extremes of "apple polishing" and rebellion. Perhaps most important of all is the individual's need to learn how to fit into groups without sacrifice of principles and to understand and combat prejudice and the exclusiveness of student cliques.

It is a truism that an older generation can never fully understand a younger one. Add to this fact that phenomenon of Western culture called "adolescence," and one has ample justification for supplying the student with such information as will help him better to understand his own intrafamilial relationships. Studies indicate that the chief sources of difficulty are parental reluctance to accept the student as a maturing, if not mature, individual, interparental conflict, unreasonable restrictions, parental neglect, shame or discontent with home conditions, sibling rivalry, resentment of home chores or parental supervision, and other-sibling preference. According to the degree of his maturity, the pupil should be helped not only to understand his tendencies to rebel, which are so characteristic of what sociologists call the "Youth Culture," but also to appreciate more fully the intent of the Fourth Commandment.

One of the most frequent complaints of pastors is that the Catholic college or high school graduate seems to be swallowed up in a void so far as participation in parish organizations is concerned. The third type of information, then, has to do with what Myers has called unpaid community services.⁸ These are both

⁸ George E. Myers, *Principles and Techniques of Vocational Guidance* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1941), p. 28.

an opportunity and a challenge for the exercise of the student's social responsibilities. It is important that such information be imparted not only because such activities are educational but even more because by such participation one learns those skills which are prerequisite to adult leadership. In such societies as the Children of Mary, the Junior Holy Name, St. Vincent de Paul, the Confraternity, the Boy and Girl Scouts, the Red Cross, and Future Farmers of America, the individual has ample opportunity to contribute to the common good. A host of religious, social, civic, political and artistic groups are quite willing to utilize the abilities of these students. It is a responsibility of the school first to provide the necessary information and then to guide the student into that specific type of community service which will be best for him.

THE COUNSELING SERVICE

It would be arrant nonsense to dichotomize the formational and the informational aspects of the pupil personnel program. Nevertheless, the major emphasis in the student inventory, information, remedial, and evaluation services is principally informational, as it is in those services which seek to help administrators, teachers, and parents. On the other hand, the group development, counseling, moral development and placement services seek more to form the student than to inform him. The efficacy of these latter services is less dependent on armories of techniques and the long, white beard of experience than upon the ability of the personnel worker to establish and maintain warm human relationships with students. This follows from the fact that the greatest force for good, God's grace alone excepted, is the influence of one personality on another.

If what has been said is valid, then to hold that the heart of the guidance program is the counseling service is to mouth more than a cliché. The assessment of students is mere inquisitiveness, the dissemination of information inane "busy work," unless plans are made for periodic contacts between each student and someone who respects him as a person, understands him as an individual, and is competent enough to be of genuine help in time of need. The counseling service, then, may be distinguished from all other personnel services in five ways: (1) purpose,

(2) point of view, (3) personnel, (4) process, and (5) place.

Purpose.—The aim of counseling is to contribute to the student's growth by giving him that individualized assistance which he cannot secure from other school sources. Whether he is perplexed by a vocational dilemma, puzzled by his own development, pained by his inner conflicts, or uncertain as to what educational path he should travel, the aim is ever the same. It is to provide him with opportunities to consider his problem with a relatively wiser person in order that he may define it more clearly, determine a reasonable solution, test it against reality, and modify his course of action in the light of experience.

Point of view.—Basic to all counseling is the blunt admission that its primary, though not exclusive, allegiance is to the student. This implies a willingness to accept him as one finds him. It implies, further, a respect for his God-given right to self-determination in the use of his free will, free from cajoling, coaxing, or coercion. Hence, counseling is a two-way learning process in which the student is truly the captain of his soul, while the counselor is servant not master, protector not prescriber, minister not manipulator.

Personnel.—Only the moral development service makes greater demands on the school's personnel than does counseling. For counseling is more than the recounting of delightful anecdotes from one's own adolescence, more than assuring the counselee that his every problem has been antecedently experienced by the guidance worker, more than advising, persuading, or urging. It therefore requires personnel who are equipped for the task in terms of personality, training, experience, and the possession of that absolute *sine qua non*, prudence. It follows, then, that to claim that all teachers are counselors is as misleading as to affirm that all doctors are surgeons. Doctor and teacher alike have undoubtedly assimilated much of the training appropriate to the corresponding specialties. Although this learning may entitle either to exercise in a limited manner the functions of the specialist, it by no means justifies their pretensions to the specialty itself.

Student problems which range from moods to momism, from fears to fixations, from reading difficulties to resentments, from overweight to overdependence, from loneliness to lethargy, from

shyness to stuttering, from inferiority to indecision, from physical defects to discouragement cannot all be solved by any one person, not even by him who parades under the seraphic title of *the* counselor. As a service, counseling is the shared responsibility of many within the school, each working at his own level within the framework of his training and the limitations of his situation. It demands the co-operative effort of administrator, counselor, and teacher, each of whom in his own way labors for a common objective, the prevention and remediation of student difficulties.

Process.—Teaching is a process in which the instructor seeks to help the student acquire those ideas, ideals, skills, and attitudes which are necessary for a happy life by covering a given segment of our cultural heritage within a restricted area of educational experience. However permissive he may be, the fact remains that the teacher is dominant. He knows, and because he knows, he instructs, assigns lessons and gives grades in his attempt to teach as competently as he can that phase of the educational sequence for which he is responsible in terms of the syllabus. Counseling is far different. It is a process in which, as often as not, the student takes the lead and in which guide and guided are about as near to being peers as mature and immature can ever be.

Counseling differs from teaching in other ways as well. The good teacher starts with students as he finds them in terms of their attitudinal patterns and apperceptive backgrounds; the counselor may not start at all unless the student freely assents to receive the proffered aid. The teacher continues to teach even when his best efforts fail to motivate students; the counselor generally continues to help only so long as the student is actively co-operative. The teacher thinks primarily of the class with a lesser concern for the individual within the group; the counselor considers first the individual and only secondarily is he interested in the group. Finally, the teacher must act with authority at least with reference to maintaining discipline, taking attendance, and evaluating progress; the counselor avoids both the overt and covert exercise of authority, refusing to judge the individual or compare him with his peers. Thus, the good teacher and the good counselor have a single goal, which is reached by different

means. The teacher seeks to understand the student in order to help him; the counselor seeks to help the individual understand himself in order that he may help himself.

Place.—Almost every other personnel activity can be carried on with groups of students. Counseling, with the interview as its core, presupposes a degree of intimacy which makes this impossible. In fact, the very idea of "group counseling" seems something of a misnomer, if not an actual contradiction in terms. Counseling requires some fixed place, suitably equipped, which conveys to both counselor and counselee the realization that the relationship is quite different from any other in the school. Only in this way will one avoid the absurd situation of the principal who claimed that she had six counseling rooms, when what was actually intended was that at a particular time she had six empty classrooms. On the other hand, to say that counseling requires adequate space is not to imply that it can be done only in a large and ornately furnished office. Some of the best counseling programs began in unused storage rooms which the counselors painted themselves. It does mean that counseling cannot normally be done efficiently in such places as corridors, classrooms, or the auditorium.

THE GROUP DEVELOPMENT SERVICE

Any guidance program which fails to capitalize on the potentialities of a well-organized group development service is doomed to incompleteness. The reason for this is not simply the fact that such an approach is the most practical and economic means for dealing with the common problems of students. Its basic justification lies in the truth that man is by nature a social animal who cannot attain to the fullness of his human nature except in the various groups of which he is a member. For each person the group constitutes a cause, contributing factor, occasion, or situational source of his problems. Accordingly, he cannot hope to solve these difficulties through counseling alone. The finest interviewing and the clearest insights possible remain inert unless they are translated from the artificial, tête-à-tête relationship of counseling to the group situations of life.

The group development service, then, is not an administrative trick of sleight of hand by which the problems of the "mostest"

can be handled with the "leastest" time and expense. It is rather a laboratory of human relations based on specific psychosociological principles; it is a learning process seeking to develop definite skills and attitudes. One can readily appreciate the importance of this service if he considers but a few of the principles on which it is based: (1) that people in groups often behave differently than they do as individuals; (2) that the student's attitudes towards himself are, in large part, determined by the attitudes of others towards him; (3) that the achievement and contentment of the individual depend upon his ability to establish wholesome interpersonal relationships within his peer groups; (4) that group learning is at times more effective than individual learning, even as group action is often more potent than individual action; (5) that greater progress can be made through co-operative action than by individual effort; (6) that satisfactions resulting from group accomplishment are more gratifying than those resulting from individual achievement because they serve as secondary reinforcements to the harmonious relationships which made the initial achievement possible; (7) that, since one learns by doing, the opportunities to share responsibilities, to fulfill assigned roles, and to shift roles according to the changing conditions of the group constitute one of the most practical learning experiences offered students by the school.

Whether one speaks of student government, cocurricular activities, or the homeroom, the group development service endeavors to instill in students certain skills and attitudes. Students must learn the ways of co-operative living. They must master the techniques whereby they may learn to work together for common purposes. In short, they must learn democratic methods of attaining goals through wise leadership, intelligent followership, self-discipline, and self-evaluation. While it is important that the student be adaptable enough to get along amicably with others who are different from himself, it is far more important that he learn to do so without losing his own individuality.

In this, as always, attitudes hold the first place. Among the significant attitudes which the group development service seeks to inculcate the following are perhaps the most valuable: (1) an increased sense of personal worth born of accomplishment;

(2) a feeling of security resulting from friendships made; (3) a sense of responsibility for contributing to the social order which supports the student; (4) a zeal not merely for the amelioration of society but for its salvation; (5) a willingness to help the school attain its objectives; (6) a spirit of rational independence which avoids the extremes of lamb-like docility and adolescent license; (7) a loyalty which prevents sacrifice of principles to group pressures; (8) a readiness to accept authority, direction and help without loss of freedom, initiative, and creativity.

THE MORAL DEVELOPMENT SERVICE

Per se the Catholic secondary school produces Christians; *per accidens* it endeavors to form good citizens. It follows therefore that the moral development service is at once the most important and most potent means in our efforts to guide youth. It is most important because it seeks the student's moral integrity and perfection. It is most potent because, in addition to those personnel procedures available to all, it has spiritual resources denied others. Its most efficacious techniques are not counseling but confession, not clinics but Communion, not tests but the New Testament, not group work but grace, not records but retreats, not occupational information but the inspiration of the Holy Spirit, not group dynamics but the dynamism which is the Mass, not placement but prayer, not evaluation but the Eucharist, not science but sanctity.

The moral development service, then, seeks not so much to protect the student against a materialistic world, nor even to make him a kind of spiritual Jack Dempsey in a hostile, pagan environment, but rather to form in him the "Catholic sense." This Catholic sense is that disposition to think with the mind of the Church, which so impregnates the student that he habitually appraises all problems and situations by her standards. If the guidance possibilities of the moral development service are not actualized, then all personnel work in Catholic schools loses its significance and meaning.

THE REMEDIAL SERVICES

To one who naively accepts the stereotype of America as the wealthiest and most hygienic country on earth, the statistics on

handicapped children are shocking. To the guidance worker, the condition of those students who help make up these statistics is pitiful. If the personnel program is to meet its obligations, it must make special provisions for those individuals whose defects are beyond the competence of the teacher. These disabilities may be classified under four headings: (1) health, (2) speech, (3) reading, and (4) emotional.

Every school has its quota of pupils who suffer from physical maladies ranging from auditory and visual disorders to allergies and rheumatic fever. The school's task in this matter is three-fold: early detection, speedy assistance, and successful treatment. Institutions fortunate enough to employ a physician, nurse, or dental hygienist are naturally in a better position to render these services. The absence of such specialized personnel, however, does not free less lucky schools from their obligations, for in nearly every community there are altruistically-minded individuals and groups that stand ready to help. It is the guidance worker's duty to seek them out and use them.

Although the school is generally in a happier situation with reference to speech and reading difficulties, it is surprising to find that relatively few, even at the college level, have organized programs to meet these student needs. Surely each school could do at least some of the following: (1) train its teachers and guidance workers to recognize major defects and to learn how to help the student overcome minor obstacles; (2) support selected personnel who show an interest in securing training in remedial speech and reading; (3) employ, on a part-time basis, speech and reading specialists; and (4) be sufficiently familiar with the resources in the community so as to be able to make an intelligent referral.

If the prophecy that one out of every ten students will at some time suffer from a behavior disorder is valid, then the school can ill afford to stand aside and say "What is that to us? See you to it." Incipient emotional troubles must be detected and treated before they develop into full-blown functional disorders. Here prudence is essential. One should not mistake adolescent shenanigans for psychoses, nor, on the other hand, pass off as a nuisance the student who is really neurotic. Caution is required, too, in recognizing one's limitations. Ability to do psychotherapeutic

counseling is attained only through study and experience. The possession of a polysyllabic psychological vocabulary, however fluently it is used and no matter how secure it makes one feel, is no substitute for intensive training under supervision.

The wiser course for most personnel workers is to work closely with some specialist or community agency. This likewise happens to be the most practical procedure, since such cases usually demand treatment for an extended period. Thus, in maintaining an "open-door" policy for such students, the guidance worker runs the risk of adopting a "closed-door" policy for other less seriously disturbed individuals. It is not the duty of the counselor to be all things to all men but to see to it that each obtains the quantity and quality of assistance he requires. In the case of those who suffer from serious health, speech, reading or emotional difficulties, this can best be accomplished through the utilization of intraschool and extraschool specialists.

THE PLACEMENT AND FOLLOW-UP SERVICE

It has been said that the group is a cause, contributing factor, occasion, or situational source of the pupil's problems. It is evident that personnel work is more interested in prevention than rehabilitation. On both counts the placement service is necessary. Although the popular concept of this service thinks of it in terms of "getting jobs" for students, a sounder view would subordinate the vocational to the educational activities involved. In the first place, unless the student is properly placed educationally, the school may not hold him long enough to make job placement an issue. Moreover, success in placing the student in those educational experiences from which he can profit most is a necessary antecedent to his occupational success.

The educational placement process is oriented about the following problems: (1) placement within the school, (2) placement of drop-outs, and (3) placement of graduates who desire further training. Unfortunately, at times, the lack of personnel, size of school, and the absence of varied curricula are insuperable obstacles to the proper placement of students. In such case the real question is whether the student should have been accepted at all. In other instances, however, administrative need for order, inflexible curricular requirements, and the

use of entrance data for screening rather than guidance purposes, hamper unduly all efforts to give students an education suited to their needs, so far as this is possible.

If an extracurricular activity is defined as one which arises out of the classroom and then, by promoting student growth, returns to enrich it, then personnel workers must see to it that students find their way into those organizations which will best supplement what the faculty is striving to do. Even granting that such programs offer opportunities to develop special talents and interests, a policy of allowing adolescents to choose such activities unaided has at least one practical disadvantage. It almost guarantees that those who most need the experience will never get it. How many shy students, for instance, voluntarily join the debating or dramatic groups? Here, too, is a guidance situation.

Many, perhaps too many, students transfer to the public schools before graduation. Research indicates that such transfers face formidable adjustment problems. They must accustom themselves to major and minor differences in school atmosphere, mores, teaching methods, curricula, schoolmates and discipline. Without the aid of wise counseling, they risk facing this new situation with an attitude of timidity or one of cynical bravado. Either bodes ill for their success. It is almost criminal to let these students go without the necessary support to help them in making this transition successfully.

Finally, educational placement is interested in seeing to it that those who go on for further training are adequately situated and satisfactorily adjusted. This demands more than answering for the college group the question "Is this student right for this college; is this college right for this student?" In addition, those in the noncollege group who wish it, should be placed in those technical, business, part-time, night-school and adult educational opportunities which will best help them realize their life plans.

Occupational placement is, for many students, the culmination of the pupil personnel program. It has been described in terms of the right job for the right man and round pegs in round holes. In the Catholic school it means something more. It is the attempt, whether the school has its own central placement

office, or works through private or community agencies, to help the student to find an occupation in which he will not merely earn his bread by the sweat of his brow but be an influence for good among men. Moreover, lest it be thought that this activity begins only in the senior year, it should be pointed out that the placement of students in part-time jobs and summer work is also a phase of this process.

Follow-up is the Janus of the personnel services. It looks ahead to keep contact with former students and to facilitate their adjustment in their new situations. On the other hand, it looks back to those still in school that it might improve its efforts to help them. By ascertaining the experiences of its graduates and drop-outs, by securing the reactions of employers, by studying how well its students fare in college, the school can evaluate its own effectiveness. Moreover, such data can at times be a powerful means for stimulating students to think seriously of the future.

SERVICES TO ADMINISTRATORS, TEACHERS, AND PARENTS

Ideally, the role of the administrator is to structure the educational environment so that teachers may teach and students learn most efficiently. In practice, too often he is bedeviled by problems which range from the observation of state regulations to having the leaky radiator on the third floor repaired. The pupil personnel program, acting in a consultant capacity, can be of invaluable help to the principal, for the data it possesses makes it a quasi central intelligence agency in the school. Is the religion program adequately preparing those students who must perhaps attend nonsectarian institutions? Is it equal to the problems faced by those who have gone to work? Is the science sequence effective in getting students ready for additional training? What do employers think of the graduates in terms of their personality traits and mastery of communication skills? Is the student activities program alive and vibrant or is it a vestigial remain perpetuated through habit and custom? What are the real problems of students? What do the parents really think of the school? What are some of the weak links in the instructional program? A competent guidance organization should be in a position to help the administrator answer questions of this sort.

The personnel worker who assumes that he has a divine dictate to "enlighten the faculty" or "make them guidance-minded," is asking for trouble. His task is not to deal with teachers as some of them treat their students but to support their instructional efforts. One teacher needs assistance in planning a homeroom unit; another wonders where a particular kind of occupational information may be obtained; a third would like to know about some of the specialized services available in the community. The humble guidance worker can be of real help in many such cases. He may also be able to assist teachers in better understanding their pupils by supplying them with information regarding their development. When a member of the faculty has more than ordinary difficulty with a student, the personnel worker may prove his worth by working with the teacher and the student as best he can. It is only after the instructional staff has become convinced of the values of personnel work that the counselor can be of service by organizing in-service training programs or by recommending specific courses to interested teachers.

The number of parents who are bewildered by their inconsistent offspring is legion. Here, too, the personnel worker can make a significant contribution. By means of home visitations and parent conferences he can explain the aims and work of the school. He can also discuss with them ways and means whereby both parties may work co-operatively for the good of the student. Through the organization of parent-teacher organizations the personnel program can often institute, by means of guest speakers, films and other devices, practical parent education. Certainly the educational potential of such groups should never be sacrificed in favor of merely social or fund-raising activities.

RESEARCH AND EVALUATION SERVICE

Socrates gave the only justification the research and evaluation service needs when he declared that an unexamined life was one that was not worth living. The pupil personnel program represents just so much wasted time and energy if plans are not made for periodic evaluation of its services. Progress in guidance, as in other fields, is the result of small but cumulative improvements based on constant study. The data secured from follow-up studies, analyses of test results, and the results of spe-

cial investigations enable the school to judge honestly the efficiency with which it provides each of the eight services discussed above. What is needed in this connection is not periodic bursts of enthusiasm nor spurts of inspiration but painstaking research which leads to specific modifications of the program.

It should be obvious that the pupil personnel program can never be the exclusive prerogative of any particular clique in the school. Much less can any institution defend its complacency with such nonsense as "Every teacher is a counselor" or "We have a guidance counselor." Administrators, teachers, personnel workers, and community agencies must work together toward the common goal of student competence and happiness. No one can make an exclusive claim to the right to help students and there can be no room for suspicion of the competence of others. Actually, the co-ordinated effort of all will hardly be equal to the task to be done.

• • •

In 1953-54 some 8.9 million pupils were carried to and from the public schools in 147,425 vehicles at an expense of \$308,700,000. Compared with 1952-53 figures, the number of pupils transported was up 553,000, or 7 per cent; the number of busses 7,300, or 6 per cent; and the public funds expended, nearly \$21,000,000 or 7 per cent. States in which the largest number of children were served were Ohio, Pennsylvania, New York, and North Carolina; States in which the most money was spent were New York, California, Texas, and Pennsylvania.

The 1955 edition of *A Manual on Certification Requirements for School Personnel in the United States* (Washington: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, 1955) reports continued gains in the upgrading of minimum requirements of the States for regular teaching certificates. In 1955, a total of thirty-one States prescribe completion of the bachelor's degree for regular certification of elementary school teachers. In 1946, only fifteen States prescribed the bachelor's degree for such certificates.

EVALUATION: THE IDEAL AND THE ACTUAL

By Robert B. Nordberg*

THE FIRST ARTICLE in the present series distinguished between wholes and aggregates in mental measurement and discussed a corresponding distinction between additive and non-additive measurement.¹ The second article discussed the problem of homogeneity in measurement, the use of median and percentile statistics in ordinal measuring situations, and the problems of equality of measuring units and "absolute" zero.² The present article, which completes the series, will discuss a survey by the writer of common measurement and evaluation practices of college instructors, and will make recommendations as to the nature of an ideal evaluation program.

The writer interviewed twenty-six college instructors in some detail about their testing habits. A sample test was obtained from each of the instructors. These interviews were undertaken in the hope of shedding some light on three questions: (1) What do college teachers believe about the nature of mental measurement, both in their own fields and in general? (2) What discrepancies appear between these beliefs and the actual measurement practices of these teachers? (3) Are the teachers conscious of these discrepancies; and, if so, how do they defend them? It was felt that a structural analysis of the thinking of a small sampling of professors would shed more light than responses of a large number of them to a written inquiry. The interviews were taken from more than one institution and from a variety of subject-matter fields including every basic type of course usually taught at a university.

It will not be feasible to include a detailed statement about

*Robert B. Nordberg, Ed.D., is an instructor in the Department of Education at The Catholic University of America.

¹Robert B. Nordberg, "Additive and Non-Additive Mental Measurement," *The Catholic Educational Review*, LIII (March, 1955), 145-157.

²Robert B. Nordberg, "Problems in Additive Measurement," *The Catholic Educational Review*, LIII (September, 1955), 373-383.

each interview herein. The interested reader is referred to the writer's dissertation.³ A few selections will be given, intended to show the variety of existing opinions and practices.

A TEST ON PHILOSOPHY—PROFESSOR A

This test was given in a course called "Humanities and the Arts," a lower-division course. Two examinations were given, midterm and final. This test was the midterm. Professor A had assigned certain readings on the subject of religion. The test instructed the students to discuss the influence of these readings upon their thinking on the subject of religion. They were told that their papers would be graded by three criteria: clarity, coherence, and defense of ideas.

Professor A emphatically stressed that what he was trying to measure was a whole, not an aggregate. Each paper was graded on a global basis. No numbers were used. Professor A said that his three criteria were not "absolutes," but also that they could "not neatly be reduced" to one another.

Professor A did not average test grades to arrive at his course grade. Rather, he looked for "clear-cut tendencies in the student's written work and in class discussion." He did not believe that graduation for any degree should be mathematically determined. The student should graduate "when he has come to grips with certain major issues." He suggested that the best way to determine this would be a written analysis by those with whom the student has worked, who would review one another's analyses and come to a conclusion.

A very high consistency obtained among this instructor's attitudes, and between his attitudes and practices. His methods corresponded exactly to the "ideal" evaluation program recommended at a later point herein, except that Professor A seemed to regard one set of beliefs as not demonstrably better or worse than another, granted that both sets were clearly and consistently expressed.

A TEST ON HUMAN RELATIONS—PROFESSOR B

This was an objective test made by a committee of four in-

³ Robert B. Nordberg, "A Criticism of Some Assumptions Involved in Mental Measurement" (Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Dept. of Education, University of Denver, 1954), pp. 53-99.

structors and given in a lower-division course. Two of the committee, according to Professor B, felt that the test should measure "subject-matter" (facts, unrelated to any meaningful context). The others felt it should measure understanding of relationships and ability to make judgments in the subject. Each of the four contributed a certain number of items. The test thus included eight true-false questions, thirty-three multiple-choice items, and four short-answer questions. The multiple-choice were given slightly more weight than the true-false on the supposition that they tended to call for more reflection. This supposition appeared questionable to the writer. A true-false question was: "The oldest permanent community in man's history is the agricultural village." A multiple-choice question was: "The total effect that Jim makes on the other children in his class is referred to by psychologists as his (a) behavior pattern (b) personality (c) personality profile (d) social-stimulus value."

It is difficult to see how even a person who habitually sees sermons in stones would be stimulated to any critical thinking by either of those questions.

Professor B felt that an understanding of human relations was both a plurality and a unity in the sense that "one builds his philosophy out of these diverse elements." Like many academicians who flirt halfheartedly with wholistic ideas, he seemed to have no real concept of the nature of a whole. He spoke vaguely of "relating" parts, but it seemed clear that the parts were regarded as basic causes and the relations as by-products.

He said, however, that when he makes up his own tests, they are of the essay type. In grading such tests, a certain weight is given to each item and the score is added. The only misgiving about objective tests expressed by Professor B is that they make it easy for a student to guess.

He did not consider all items on the test homogeneous, nor even that all of them had to do with human relations. He was quite emphatic that there would be no way to determine equality of units on the test. He seemed equally convinced, however, that the zero was absolute. Tests for the class as a group were graded on a curve and mean score determined. The course grade for each student was arrived at by obtaining the average score of the student on each of three tests.

Professor B felt that the present way of determining degree-eligibility is "tolerable" in the light of limits of staff time at most universities. He said that anyone who is genuinely interested should be permitted to continue in college regardless of grades. The ideal way, though not feasible, would be to examine the student over "those areas in which he ought to have developed an ability to think critically. See whether he has found and criticized his assumptions." This examination should be oral and written, the latter part to consist of essay questions. In addition to the previously-stated criteria the student ought to demonstrate that he knows the methodologies (translation: methods) in his field, can communicate his thoughts, and so forth.

Professor B seems to belong to that vast category of teachers who are uncertainly aware of wholistic concepts and express a desire to follow them, but do not follow through consistently. Even when he gives essay tests, he grades them additively. Course grades are based on test averages. Then, to determine eligibility for a degree, he would attempt to do the kind of over-all evaluating which he does not attempt in his own course! Also, here is a case of compromises with questionable statistical methods, within the framework of additive measurement. Finally, this case illustrates the dangers involved when a test is made up by several persons. A comparison might be made to the type of picnic which the hostess assumes will be a success if everyone brings plenty of the kind of food he likes best. Integration and homogeneity are difficult to obtain when a test is constructed by a group of persons. Too many cooks spoil the broth, even in a democracy.

A TEST IN SPANISH—PROFESSOR E

This test is of a type frequently given in Professor E's department, and was given in a lower-division course. Professor E stressed the importance of isolating various factors in language skill, so that measurement of one is not influenced by skill in any of the others. (Why?) He conceived of skill in Spanish as the arbitrary sum of such definable and isolable factors. The method of testing had been "worked out democratically by the entire department, at my insistence." The test calls for written answers, but questions are presented by a phonograph record. In

the first part the record tells a story, following which five questions are asked. These are asked in English, and may be answered in English, so that oral comprehension will be the thing really tested. The second part presents statements made in Spanish by the voice on the record. The student replies in Spanish. Here the stress is on conversational usage. The third part describes a situation for which the student must find a name. This is to test use of idioms. The test is graded by counting the number of errors. If a word missed "throws the whole answer off," a point is counted off. Double points were taken off if the student missed something the class was stressing at the time of that test. Error totals were "grouped in intervals of five to give the student a relative indication of where he stands."

Occasionally an essay test was given. Grades were converted into numbers to be averaged with the others. At the end of the quarter, a "face-value" grade was given to each student, based on classroom participation. This, also, was converted to a number to be averaged with the others.

Professor E considered all items on the test homogeneous because they all deal with "Spanish." He did not believe the units were equal, but was apparently not conscious of anything in his procedure which required that assumption. He believed, however, that a zero would be absolute. Zero is zero. The fact that some numbers were based on error totals while others were symbols of letter grades did not seem to appear to him to create any problem. Professor E felt that the present system of determining degree eligibility is as satisfactory as any workable way. He said that the main difficulty is that many teachers "don't have a satisfactory system of grading." He felt that every instructor should be required to have such a system and to have on file a syllabus of his course.

SUMMARY OF THE INTERVIEWS

Above are described only three of the twenty-six interviews. There is no conclusive basis for believing that this sampling of twenty-six is typical of any larger population, and the sampling was not undertaken for the purpose of generalizing to any hypothetical population. On the other hand, the samples were drawn from two institutions and from twenty-six academic departments.

Perhaps this provides some justification for noting tendencies.

Of the twenty-six teachers interviewed, eight seemed to conceive of what they were trying to measure as being a whole (as that term was defined in the first article of the present series). Five instructors (not all of whom were among the previous eight!) used a wholistic method of evaluation on the tests they discussed. This leaves a group of twenty-one who used one or another type of additive test. Of these, only three expressed doubts that the data on their tests were homogeneous. Virtually all of the others expressed this homogeneity simply by saying that the items all had to do with the "subject" on which they were testing. This, it may be noted, is a very high degree of abstraction, and also usually a rather sloppy one, when you consider the indefinite basis upon which "subjects" are made up. Only one person based the assertion of homogeneity on the idea that the items all had to do with "objectives of the course."

Eight of the twenty-one teachers who graded additively (38 per cent) thought that their test involved equal unit, and none of these eight gave a reason which suggested that the matter had been considered in the light of measurement theory. Eight (not entirely the same eight) thought the test involved an absolute zero. In most cases this conclusion seemed to rest upon the feeling that a zero on the test would be extremely unlikely, rather than upon a consideration of the theoretical implications of an absolute zero.

Although only 38 per cent of these twenty-one teachers believed their tests had equal units, and the same percentage believed the zero was absolute *all* of these twenty-one graded the tests by addition, and *all* of them arrived at a course grade by averaging, although four reserved the right to overrule this average grade somewhat arbitrarily. This means that approximately two-thirds of these twenty-one teachers engaged in arithmetic manipulations which clearly violated their own assumptions. Six of these twenty-one figured class means, though most of them denied the existence of equal units. Two figured correlations among tests.

Twenty-one of the twenty-six teachers thought graduation should be additively determined, though not, in some cases, the same twenty-one who did additive testing themselves.

Five types of discrepancies revealed themselves in these twenty-six interviews. (1) In a few cases, the subject matter was consciously perceived as a whole, but measured as an aggregate, or vice versa. (2) In some cases, nonhomogeneous data were mixed, not so much in a single test as in arriving at course grades. (3) Adding and averaging where units were not believed by the teacher to be equal was a common practice, both in treating a set of papers in a given class and in determining a course grade for a given student. (4) Averaging where the zero was not believed to be absolute was commonly engaged in, in the same two types of situations. (5) A few professors saw their own course as an aggregate but inclined towards a wholistic philosophy of grade requirements. A few others had the reverse pattern.

Statements about departmental or area tendencies must be extremely tentative due to the small sampling. However, it may be noted that there were seven interviews with professors of physical and biological sciences, seven interviews with professors of social sciences (including psychology and education), nine with teachers in humanities, and three with teachers of the fine arts. It was quite evident to the interviewer that, almost without exception, the teachers in the first-named and last-named of those four categories had given less consideration than the others to measurement-evaluation problems and were quite prone to show inconsistencies with their own assumptions. Of the seven science teachers, all graded their tests additively and all thought degree requirements should be additive. Of the seven social science teachers, three graded wholistically, of whom two would award a degree on the same basis. Of the nine humanities teachers, four graded wholistically and four (partly the same four) would award degrees on a similar basis. All of the fine arts teachers graded additively (!) and all would award degrees additively. Of the twenty-six teachers, two followed the recommendations of the writer as to an "organismic" method.

One result of the interviews was especially striking to the writer. Nearly all of the teachers showed clear signs that they thought of "subjectivity" as any process calling for judgment. By the same token, they thought of "objectivity" in terms of breaking up subject matter into fragments so small, isolated and

manipulatable that almost anyone could agree on their character. Those who graded wholistically in evaluating individual tests and in assigning course grades made no apologies about being "subjective."

The writer believes that a basic reason for many poor evaluation practices is the false criterion for "objectivity" which has come to be so widely accepted among educators. In talking to these teachers, it seemed clear that most of them probably would have evaluated more effectively and taught more effectively if they had rejected the premise that to be objective is to forego the right to exercise judgments with which some people might disagree. There seems to be a crucial need to orient instructors to the probability that "objectivity" is produced, not by agreement of all persons (whatever their degree of competency in a given area) but by the maturity of judgment of the person who *makes* a judgment.

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

The additive assumption.—Additive measurement assumes that one is concerned with an aggregate, not with a whole. It is not, therefore, strictly compatible with a Gestalt philosophy of teaching. There are some aggregates in education and they can be measured additively. The "tool" subjects—reading, writing, and arithmetic, especially at the more elementary levels—are examples. Usually, however, measurement tends to be in accord with stated aims insofar as it tests organization and communication of ideas, which cannot be done adequately in an additive test. One who believes consistently in a wholistic approach should not evaluate individual tests in a global fashion, only to revert to an additive basis in assigning grades for a course.

One major qualification is necessary. There is a substantial correlation, as a rule, between what a person will do on an additive test and his efficiency in organizing and using material, even if the test does not directly tap the latter. The student who comes out high on an atomistic test is likely to come out high on a wholistic one. Even the term "correlation," as used above, however, tends to place one's thinking back in the additive framework. The writer is fully sympathetic with the problems of time, facilities, and the like, which can handicap a sec-

ondary or elementary teacher, having faced those problems himself. The question, in every case, is simply this: Am I doing the best job that is feasible? The recommendations of the present article contain nothing that the writer has not found it feasible and profitable to employ in his own classes.

It should also be borne in mind that there are at least two levels in interpreting any experimental or research work. The first level is the factual. No experimental or statistical outcome is any more or less "true" than any other, granted that the conditions and operations were carefully recorded, and the measurement painstakingly done. At the second level come the questions about causality, organization, and the like. A great deal of more or less additive and atomistic work in the behavioral sciences is "validated" against other work of the same sort, so that it is easy to forget the possibility that it is "valid" only at the phenomenological level. The writer has had the experience of being told by a journal editor that the best way to prove the worth of a nonquantitative intelligence test would be to get it statistically validated!

There is a kind of relative correctness about many empirical endeavors. That is to say, they are correct relative to the materials it is necessary for them to work with, the procedures they employ, and so forth. For example, factor analysis is correct insofar as it presumes to give us factors which are statistically independent, but probably not insofar as it presumes to (or is taken to) imply that the functional organization of actual persons involves autonomous abilities corresponding to these factors. The writer, while recognizing the worth of factorial studies, is inclined to wonder whether they do not tend to direct our attention away from questions of functional organization.

Homogeneity of data.—It is justifiable to add data so long as they are homogeneous in some respect. The problem of homogeneity is essentially that of the status of logical universals. Platonism and nominalism are both incompatible with measurement. Unawareness of abstracting was held to be the basis of many difficulties in the behavioral sciences. Data which are homogeneous in one respect are not necessarily homogeneous in other respects. Concepts in education should not be regarded as necessarily mutually exclusive by teachers, and the existence

of subclasses should be kept in mind. A teacher who is satisfied that his data are homogeneous because they all pertain to "the subject" he is teaching should be able to define the subject in some meaningful way and to interpret data relative thereto.

Medians and percentiles in ordinal measurement.—It is usually assumed in statistics that the use of medians and percentiles is logically justifiable where data are rankable but where units are not necessarily equal. To determine the median of a distribution or to state the percentile of a given score does not, in itself, require an assumption of equal units; but to say that a score at a given percentile represents more achievement than another score at a lower percentile assumes (if the percentiles were derived from additive scores) that any combination of "correct" responses yielding a given score reflects the same level of mastery as any other combination yielding the same score. This, in turn, virtually requires an assumption of the presence of equal units.

Equal units and interval statistics.—It is usually assumed that one is justified in adding and subtracting scores where units of measurement are equal. It is also assumed that means, standard deviations, and correlations (other than the contingency correlation, which does not require equal units) are usable at this level. The writer accepts these assumptions but questions the demonstrable existence of equal units in mental measurement. To begin with, mathematical concepts are more abstract than those of the natural sciences, and the attempt to apply concepts pitched at one level of abstraction to situations of a less abstract character leads to imperfections of fit. Secondly, equality of units by postulation appears unsatisfactory in its consequences, and no adequate scale for determining weight of units has been or probably can be built. Nevertheless, an investigator is justified in using means, standard deviations and correlations (a) if what he is dealing with is clearly an aggregate, and (b) if there is some pragmatic sanction in terms of results obtained, or (c) if he feels that the results will not differ drastically from what would be obtained with wholistic methods.

Absolute zero and ratio statistics.—The use of multiplying and dividing procedures as in coefficients of variation and logarithmic transformations is logically justifiable where data have

equal units and are based upon an absolute zero. Ratio measurement implies both characteristics. Therefore, the considerations against the assumption of equal units apply here. The problem of determining an absolute zero, considered apart from these considerations, hinges largely on whether data in a test are considered as the totality of what is to be measured, or as a sampling. In the latter case, it is almost impossible to demonstrate that the zero is absolute.

GENERAL RECOMMENDATIONS

(1) In strictest logic, additive measurement should be employed only if one has good reason to believe that he is dealing with an aggregate rather than a whole. It may be employed in wholistic situations, however, if (a) there is reason to believe that a close correspondence exists between the results of additive and global approaches in the situation, or (b) some other pragmatic consideration, such as time limitation, looms large. The question, again, is whether one is doing the best thing that is feasible.

(2) All data which are mixed to yield a single statistic should be homogeneous in some way that is clearly understood and defined and the single datum should not be generalized in interpretation any less or more than what is thereby implied.

(3) Contrary to the usual interpretation, the use of medians and percentiles in ordinal measurement is not logically justified, because the percentile statistics usually derive from raw scores which, in their turn, presuppose equality of measuring units.

(4) Two objections against the use of cardinal numbers in mental measurement exist. The first and most serious is the additive assumption implied. The second, even if one stays within the additive framework, is the assumption of equal units implied. Use of ordinal numbers does not encounter either of these difficulties but should be unmixing with additive manipulations. For instance, one should not average a series of ordinal numbers.

(5) In spite of the foregoing logical objections, use of additive measurement in non-additive situations may be justified by a number of pragmatic considerations which have been cited.

SUGGESTIONS FOR AN ORGANISMIC EVALUATION PROGRAM

The following suggestions are included with special reference to those kinds of situations in which a teacher is trying to evaluate

a student's over-all progress, and are included because the tone of the foregoing conclusions is not primarily constructive. These suggestions are stated with a full awareness of the difficulty—in some cases, the virtual impossibility—of implementing them. The writer believes, however, that it is always desirable to state theoretical goals, even if they can be, at best, partially reached.

(1) When evaluating over-all progress, each examination should be evaluated as a whole, with stress on organization and communication of ideas and on problem-solving. No additive process should be used in grading it.

(2) If numbers are used in this particular kind of evaluational situation, they should be ordinal numbers only. Ordinal numbers are not subject to further mathematical manipulation.

(3) Insofar as education is conceived to be a unitary function, at no point in the entire process of evaluation leading to diplomas and degrees should cardinal numbers be used. Special reference here is to course grades and graduation criteria. Examination scores should not be added or averaged to determine a course grade. Course grades should not be added or averaged to determine eligibility for a degree.

At this level, to be sure, the organismic concept of learning becomes most difficult to apply. The writer's survey of college instructors showed that, even among those who do any sort of wholistic evaluation, few thought the same approach could feasibly be taken to measuring a student's over-all education. The writer does not take the stand that such global evaluation of the student's entire college program could be satisfactorily done in the foreseeable future. He does heartily believe, however, that every gesture in that direction is a good thing! Such evaluation would presumably be by essay examination, or oral, or both. One basic difficulty would lie in finding evaluators capable of perceiving a student's thinking as a whole, without any undue stress on their own areas of specialization. We all regret overspecialization, but which of us does not wander a bit down that primrose path? The use of a technique for evaluating over-all development would probably involve the elimination of quantitative criteria (including grade averages) for degrees.

NEW AREAS FOR RESEARCH AND REFLECTION

The present study does not merely suggest "new problems," but what would be, in practice at least, a new philosophy. Various problems emerge, however, at differing levels of generality. Among the more general, there is a need for clarification of the philosophical meaning of "objectivity" among teachers and a translation of that meaning into pedagogical practice. Especially do we need to re-examine the premise that a test ought to be gradable by just anyone.

There is need for further determination of the extent of the compatibility of theories of knowledge held by some scientists with the professional procedures they use. There is need for a more penetrating statement of what is implied in the sheer process of ranking and for further consideration of possible criteria for units in measurement. We should consider, for instance, in what manner data might be reasonably interpreted when units are equal by arbitrary postulation.

Indeed, the concepts we have been dealing with ramify in many directions. There are possible implications as to what type of person should teach, perhaps even about purposes and contents, and certainly about methods, of education. There is some need for further delineation of kinds of wholes. A student might be ranked in comparison with others with respect to only one aspect of his thinking, but this aspect may itself house an integration of ideas. There is certainly need for studies on how to reorient students, administrators, teachers and public towards a more wholistic concept of evaluation. Quantitative standards are very much a part of our Occidental outlook on life. That is the reason, in the final analysis, why they will continue to be used regardless of any theoretical difficulties about them.

Intelligence.—It is noteworthy that, of the many technical objections to intelligence tests, few have to do with the premise that intelligence is the simple sum of its parts. A Gestalt approach to intelligence would be concerned with the way one's ideas are patterned around key concepts. It would presumably consist of open-ended questions designed to demonstrate the system by which a given mind operates. If such terms sound irrelevant to the concept of IQ, it is only because we have come

to identify intelligence so closely with the additive procedures by which it is now described. Would it be possible to develop a unitary test of intelligence sufficiently true to its premises that no additive process would be used in grading it? Such a test could probably establish levels such as "excellent," "good," "fair"—about five or six categories—which is as fine a differentiation as the present instruments make with any validity.

Projective tests.—The history of projective tests shows quite clearly that they were undertaken largely as a protest against atomistic measurement. They were, perhaps inevitably, gradually "taken over" by atomistic procedures. If these tests are graded additively, their specific advantage tends to be lost. There is a need to work out further methods for evaluating performance on these tests in a way more in keeping with the nature of the tests themselves.

Classroom procedures.—Considerable discussion would be required to cause pupils and parents to accept two premises: (1) that the teacher need not justify a test grade by reference to scores on items and (2) that the teacher need not justify a course grade by reference to some unvarying mathematical scheme based upon unit or test grades. The record book should be viewed as the personal and somewhat inviolable possession of the teacher, containing information to be used as the teacher sees best.

Graduation requirements.—A wholistic philosophy is most difficult to carry out at this level. Sweeping reorientation would be required. Some compromise with quantitative standards will undoubtedly be required for the foreseeable future. But, couldn't the final decision in each case be made by a faculty committee? If graduation depended upon over-all attainment, most institutions might well find new incentive to examine their objectives more closely and try to heal the schizophrenic breach that often exists between objectives and practices! Our aims in terms of "the true and perfect Christian" tend to remain more in terms of "the true and perfect Christian" tend to remain mere evaluating methods.

A SUMMARY OF VIEWS ON ENGLISH IN THE CATHOLIC HIGH SCHOOL

By Sister Marie Emmanuel, S.C.*

ENGLISH TEACHERS, more perhaps than any other group in the educational field, are notorious for rugged individualism in evaluating course content, determining goals, choosing techniques, and setting standards. Their divergencies of opinion, however, are not born of whimsy. Rather, these are the fruit of the teachers' earnest attempts to understand student needs, and of their honest appreciation of their English classes as media through which those needs can be satisfied.

BASES FOR VARIETY IN CRITERIA

The vast difference in background and ability found even among children of the same age and grade level, in different neighborhoods and types of schools, accounts for some of the variations in the criteria of English teachers. Those, for example, who have always dealt with pupils from homes where correct English is used by adults and demanded of children, have no idea of the problems encountered in English classes drawn from homes where a foreign language is spoken, where the parents' English is slovenly or broken, or where a child's attempts at correct speech are ridiculed. Teachers in schools where pupils represent the "upper fourth" scholastically cannot appreciate the difficulties of those whose schools welcome—and consequently are often crowded by—the lowest fourth, as scholastic ratings go. One teacher finds that her seniors need drill on the correct use of "seen" and "done," and cannot distinguish a sentence from a phrase; another meets no difficulties in grammar; her seniors are ready for mature attention to style in composition.

Home background, experience, and early training produce amazing differences also in students' appreciation of the good, the true, and the beautiful in literature. A high school class in

*Sister Marie Emmanuel, S.C., is on the staff of Seton High School in Cincinnati, Ohio.

one section of the city will be touched by a classic; another group giggles over it, or labels it "corny."

Fundamental differences in the home, in experience, and in education of the teachers themselves likewise account in part for the wide and often contradictory range of ideas regarding goals, content, and techniques observable in English classes on the same grade level, and even sometimes in the same school.

The teacher, for example, who has been taught to regard the careers of her pupils as her prime charge emphasizes speech and writing skills; the teacher who sees the children about her oblivious to contemporary social problems which absorb her, may use literature in a crusade to help them right social wrongs and develop "correct" social principles. One who hails from a cultured home often accents the classics in her classes, as a matter of course; one who has herself found her soul ennobled and her life enriched by reading tries to help her students discover like treasures in books. Indeed, in English classes more than anywhere else, I believe, the determining of what shall be taught is established by outside influences from both sides of the instructor's podium.

It is to be expected, therefore, that anyone attempting a survey on preferred subject matter and techniques for high school English classes should find the mailbox filled with as many different replies as there are returns. That is what happened when the Curriculum Committee of the Commission on American Citizenship compiled and distributed nationally a comprehensive questionnaire, in an effort to reach some authoritative conclusions as to how or why English classes of yesterday most often succeeded or failed, and just what the English classes of today should be like.

Addressed not only to high school teachers of English, but also to teachers in elementary schools and in colleges, to professional men and women, to students and housewives, the five-page questionnaire went out to every section of the country. Eventually 170 responses drifted in: 5 from professional writers, 27 from seminary or college professors, 92 from high school teachers, 6 from librarians, 3 from employers, 4 from housewives, and 33 from college and university students and high school seniors. Twenty of these returns, most of them in the high

school teacher's division, represented the combined thinking of a group, such as a staff of diocesan supervisors or the entire faculty of a school.

Tabulating the results was a gratifying experience. It was evident that many of the responses had demanded hours of consideration and research; such co-operation and frequent "good will" notes attached to the forms attested to the widespread and sincere interest in the project.

ATTITUDES TOWARD TEACHING MORAL PRINCIPLES

To Committee members in charge of the work it soon became obvious that, despite the generous variety of answers on most questions, a good majority of the writers had united for a surprisingly concerted agreement when the questionnaire touched, several times, on the social and moral aspects of the English class, and on the responsibility of the teacher to correlate an explanation of correct principles with her work. For example, when the survey evaluated the English teacher's opportunities to further Christian social thinking in her classes, a significant 167 of the 170 asserted that such opportunities equaled or exceeded those in other classes. Only three declared that the English teacher could promote Christian social thought less frequently than others; and everyone answered that question, which is significant, too, since the division on the deficiencies of modern spelling—a moot question today, surely!—was ignored on half the papers.

The unusual unanimity remained fairly consistent throughout this part of the survey. One hundred sixty-four agreed that the English teacher should devote class time to the discussion of social or moral questions arising naturally from material in class, 32 specifying "occasionally," and the remaining 132 advocating such discussion whenever the questions arise. Only 4 held that such discussion was out of place in the English class, and only 2 of the 170 expressed no opinion.

A few more dissidents were on hand when they were asked: "Should literature be chosen because it furthers an idea the teacher hopes to promulgate, provided, of course, that selections meet literary requirements?" Even so, tabulations showed that the conservative selection of reading material solely on the

basis of its status as a "classic" had only 22 adherents; 64 answered that they would be in favor of the teacher's choosing literature specifically because it would help her promote certain ideas "whenever possible," and 76 stipulated "occasionally." One hundred thirty-five papers agreed that the English teacher must show her classes how to discern propaganda in newspapers and magazines; 132 wanted her to give the students working norms for the evaluation of TV and radio programs; and 130 felt that pupils should learn in English class to "see through" modern advertising and to appreciate its tremendous impact on modern life.

Among those who felt that moral or social problems which grow out of English classes should be relegated to religion or sociology teachers, that classics should be chosen simply because they are classics and not for any idea the teacher hopes to impart, and that the study of TV, radio, newspapers, and magazines is out of place in an English class, was a supervisor who, speaking for the teachers under her, commented in the margin: "We cannot expect the English teacher to teach the entire curriculum during English period!"

ON INTRODUCING MODERN REALISTS

Most controversial of all the questions, and the one which drew the most spirited marginal replies, was the one which touched on the advisability of "introducing" modern novelists like Graham Greene, Mauriac, Sigrid Undset, Evelyn Waugh, and Bernanos to high school classes. Forty-four of the 162 respondents to this question went on record as holding that such authors should be given to all pupils in high school English; 103 said that they should be reserved for "a selected few," and 15 asserted that they should be given to none.

It is interesting to note that of the 86 high school teachers who answered that question, only 12 believed that such writers should be given to all of their students. Over 50 per cent of the professional writers, librarians, and college students, however, were in favor of all high schoolers doing such reading in class; and of the 28 high school seniors who filled in the questionnaire, 15 said "All," contributing a third of the votes for that proposition. Compilers, going over the sparse lists of suggested

reading which these young people submitted, were tempted to wonder how many of them had read any of the novels they were advocating for general use in their English classes.

Most of the fifteen responses against introducing modern realists to high school youth at all came from men teaching in high schools or colleges. One of them wrote: "Such reading should not be given to any adolescent." One of the few women among the dissenting fifteen, who signed her paper "A nun," remarked; "If you introduce one novel of any of the above to high school students (and certain of the novels might be given to a very few), those students might go ahead to other novels of the same authors, and for those a greater maturity might be needed."

"Give such books," a teacher suggested as a compromise, "to all who are going to college." Another advocated that they be given to all, but only "after due preparation and with continued guidance."

One all-out "pro" wrote:

All, by themselves, are not capable, of course, of grasping the total meaning of these works, but neither do they in the case of other selections, for example, a Shakespearian play. But according to their varying capacities they get much from the class discussion. Moreover, since they are reading outside of school grossly realistic literature, should not the school provide training in the study of the realistic novels by writers with a Christian philosophy of life?

Of the majority who proposed giving the modern realists to only a selected few in high school, many further qualified their answers. A high school teacher (a man) added: "I have had few students who could handle these." A former newspaper woman, with teaching experience on both high school and college levels, insisted: "To a very few and rarely, for though some appear intellectually prepared for such fare, emotional readiness may be a serious question in youth at college preparatory age."

A final quote, this one from a correspondent who signed herself, "Supervisor of English," illustrates again the diversity of opinion:

All seniors should be able to take *Women of the Pharisees* or *Viper's Tangle*, by Mauriac. These are better as core books than as supplementary material. To a selected few—some of Mauriac's books; *Handful of Dust* by Waugh; *Joy* and *Diary of a Country Priest*, by Bernanos; . . . Greene and Sigrid Undset, I do not consider high school reading.

AN APPRAISAL OF OUTCOMES NOW AND THEN

The effect of the high school ballots on the foregoing question led to the breakdown of several other tabulations into categories established by age, sex, and occupation, and it was found that six of ten optimists who claimed that high school graduates are better spellers today than they were two decades ago came from the ranks of high school seniors. Two high school teachers and two business men were the only adults who concurred in that opinion. Forty-nine responses said that the spelling now is "much worse"; 81 were satisfied to label it "inadequate," and 13 thought it about the same as it was twenty years ago.

The high school vote also made an interesting addition to the question: "Ten years ago, were English classes more successful? Less successful? About the same in results?" Fifty-nine people thought that results were about the same; 57 said classes ten years ago had been more successful; 28 said that they had been less successful. But, of these 28, 13 were high school seniors, championing their own English classes as they had their own spelling!

Although men teaching in high schools and colleges had proved more conservative in regard to students' reading of modern novelists, returns which came from seminary professors and from clerical students were the only ones to request "more mythology in high school English classes, as a help to understanding allusions in Greek and Latin classics to be read later." And the secondary school teachers checking the returns smiled when a professional writer (a man) remarked that in his own high school days there "had not been enough emphasis on Greek, Latin, and Classical literature, in English translation if not"—and here the smiles were very broad—"in the original."

Age, sex, and occupation did not seem materially to affect most of the other questions to any degree; there were pro's and

con's in each group. In the section regarding achievement in grammar to be demanded for graduation, however, the women high school teachers were consistently more lenient than were the students on either level. Writers, librarians, and especially the men teachers were also much more severe in their requirements than were the school marms.

The question read: "Should a pupil be given a high school diploma if he cannot (1) distinguish parts of speech? (2) distinguish a complete sentence from a phrase? (3) diagram a complex or compound sentence? (4) explain the meaning of gerund, ablative absolute, substantives, etc? (5) outline a paragraph? (6) use ordinary verb forms correctly (seen, done, lie, etc.)?"

Totals showed that 90 respondents (against 47) would deny a high school diploma to a high school student who could not distinguished parts of speech. If he could not tell a sentence from a phrase, 113 (against 31) would refuse him a sheepskin. Ninety-one would demand that he be able to outline a paragraph; 115 (against 25) would require that he use ordinary verb forms correctly.

Only 28 respondents signified that they would require an explanation of gerund, etc., (most of the 28 being high school students, or teachers in boys' high schools); but a severe 90 per cent of the writers, librarians, and men teachers demanded that pupils should meet all or most of the other six requirements listed in the question, before graduation.

An unidentified paper in a feminine hand bore the comment:

Some people cannot do the first four and yet they can write flawless English—and speak it, too. Never confuse the means with the end. And that is what the first four are—means. Five and six are a testing of his ability to think, but only a partial testing—a very limited one, in fact. I would be reluctant to fail a student on that basis alone. Seven—only if you remove him from the slum environment in which he lives.

The tabulators looked at that last statement twice, and that's what it said.)

A school supervisor appended: "A high school graduate should be able to perform these feats, but how many are?" A woman

teacher merely wrote across that entire section: "If he isn't given a diploma, graduating classes will be decidedly smaller!" Another teacher apparently concluded the subject, from her viewpoint, at least, by writing: "Why quibble about this? We know it happens by the thousands."

SOME SUGGESTIONS ON READINGS

Lists of suggested reading materials varied with each response, as would be expected, and made summarization of that section impossible in the space allotted in an article like this, but the answers were competently utilized by Sister Isabella, S.C., in the paper she read at the 1955 Curriculum Workshop, sponsored by The Catholic University of America; and they have likewise been incorporated into the English outlines being prepared by the Curriculum Committee of the Commission on American Citizenship. In passing, we can note that the old standard classics, fare of high school classes for generations, were mentioned on practically every paper. *King Lear*, *Macbeth*, *Hamlet*, *Merchant of Venice*, *The House of Seven Gables*, *Ivanhoe*, *Pride and Prejudice*, *The Idylls of the King*, *The Rime of the Ancient Mariner*, and *Treasure Island*—these and other old favorites appeared on list after list.

In addition to the familiar classics were dozens of modern books and authors, many of them with but one vote apiece. Adult contributors who had favored the introduction to teenagers of modern Catholic realists logically listed novels by these authors for high school English classes. Modern fiction and biography accenting a "message for the times" were named on a number of the papers, too: *The Dove Flies South*, for instance, and *Priest Workman in Germany*.

Women chose biography or "controversial" fiction from the works of contemporary authors; men named heavier prose, political commentaries particularly, and some serious modern drama and poetry, for high school class study. The younger students, even those who had demanded that all high school pupils be given Waugh, Greene, and other modern writers answered the question regarding suggested class reading almost 100 per cent with familiar lists that might have been copied from any current high school text.

Magazines proposed for use in class rated about the same division of favor. Surprisingly enough, 40 per cent of all the respondents labeled as "False" the proposition: "A magazine should be used regularly in high school English classes." Of the 60 per cent who would adopt a magazine for class use, the big majority were the women high school teachers; in fact, they and the few librarians represented among the respondents formed the only groups in which more than half of the members did not hold that there was "no time for such work in an already overcrowded English program."

The eighty-one lists of magazines which were submitted, however, more perhaps than any other part of the questionnaire, proved the diversity, in English classes, of teacher interest and student ability. *Today*, *Catholic Digest*, *America*, and *The Sign* were each mentioned on at least 25 per cent of the responses; but forty-five periodicals, all told, were suggested for regular class use, varying from *Integrity* to *Scholastic*, from *Catholic World* to *Seventeen*, from *Messenger of the Sacred Heart* and *Ave Maria* to *New Yorker!* (The last title in this list was the suggestion of a housewife and writer, who added after the name, "For style.")

Most of the votes which put *Today* first on the roll of favorites were polled from women teaching in the high schools. The comparatively few men who did want a magazine used mentioned *Time*, *America*, *The Sign*, and the digests most frequently. The student vote, less than 50 per cent "pro" to begin with, as was already noted, was too scattered to be positively significant. *Catholic Digest* and *Time* won a sparse lead from the young people, however, with twenty-one other publications trailing along with one or two votes each.

Half a dozen teachers amended the question to indicate that they believed several magazines should be used. As one wrote: "Not a magazine. It would be better to have a different magazine every week or two. And do not always import good ones. Tear apart a poor one on occasion—show what makes it a poor one."

The unanimity referred to at the beginning of this paper in regard to the English teacher's position when questions about social or moral problems arose in her class was evidenced again

in responses on the last page of the questionnaire, where "additional remarks" were solicited. Not only teachers, but business people and writers, students and housewives utilized this space or wrote "between the lines" of another answer to indicate that they realized the importance of high school English and the far-reaching results it has on the hearts and souls, as well as on the material future, of the students. Closing a thoughtful paper, a supervisor of English said: "I would be very interested in seeing the result of this questionnaire. I am one of the group who believe that the answers lie in the middle course—namely, of holding on to the treasures of such literature as has already proved itself, and introducing the best of contemporary reading to our students." And a gentleman, the poetry critic for a paper in the Far West, who is also a correspondent for a magazine in the Far East, put a hilarious period to the survey research by remarking casually: "This is the best I can do from memory. In general, I favor the idea of education. However, there are some very happy dogs and cats in our neighborhood."

BY WAY OF APOLOGY

The statisticians who tabulated questionnaire results close this commentary on their findings with a feeling of great inadequacy. The presentation of figures and per cents is accurate, and an attempt has been made to retain objectivity in interpreting the numerical picture. But it is far more important that teachers who read this report receive the message in the general spirit which pervaded the returns. This spirit was almost unanimously an apostolic one. The responsibility of Catholics to bring truth into a confused world is accepted by Catholic educators in general. It is apparent that youth now in our schools will be capable of accepting that mission only if they can handle the media of communication with faith and artistry. English teachers must assume major responsibility for development of these Christian artists of communication.

THE CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY RESEARCH ABSTRACTS*

HISTORY OF CATHOLIC EDUCATION IN COLORADO by Rev. William H. Jones, Ph.D.

This dissertation traces in chronological order the growth and development of Catholic education in the State of Colorado from the beginning to the present. All phases of Catholic education, both diocesan and private have been treated. The study centers about the missionary labors of the Franciscans and the Jesuits, the zealous work of forty-two teaching communities, and the apostolic endeavors of Bishops Macheuf, Matz, Tihen, Willging and Vehr.

A treatment of the historical background of the schools reveals some of the obstacles Catholics had to surmount in order to establish churches and schools. Financial difficulties and an inadequate supply of teachers prevented Catholic authorities from providing ideal educational opportunities. With the establishment of the Diocese of Denver, however, in 1887, Catholic education in the State advanced steadily.

The results of the study show that 184 schools have been founded within the limits of the State, which in 1941 was divided into the Archdiocese of Denver and the Diocese of Pueblo. At the present time there are 102 schools. In the Archdiocese of Denver, there is one major and two minor seminaries, two colleges, five schools for nurses, fifteen high schools and fifty-six elementary schools, staffed by 245 religious and lay teachers, with an approximate enrollment of six thousand. These figures indicate the consistent effort and self-sacrifice made by bishops, priests, religious, and laity of the State of Colorado in behalf of Catholic education.

ATTITUDES OF PARENTS TOWARD CATHOLIC EDUCATION by James R. Curtin, Ph.D.

To determine the intensity of attitude and to examine the relevancy of specified personal and environmental factors to parental attitudes toward Catholic education, a questionnaire

*Copies of these Ph.D. dissertations are on sale at The Catholic University of America Press, Washington 17, D.C.

and attitude scale were administered to five thousand parents whose children attended Catholic elementary and Catholic high schools located in thirteen dioceses distributed throughout the United States. Thirty-eight hundred usable returns constitute the data for analysis. Fisher's *t* technique was used to evaluate the statistical significance of the differences between mean attitude scores of the subgroups which were established in order to examine the influence of specified factors.

The mean attitude score of the total sample of parents indicates that they are strongly favorable to Catholic education, and the standard deviation demonstrates that the group is quite homogeneous in its opinion.

As measured, the attitudes of parents toward the Catholic schools which their children attend are influenced to a statistically significant degree by the following factors: (1) The sex of the parent: mothers are more favorable than fathers. (2) The religion of the parent: Catholics are more favorable than non-Catholics. (3) The total amount of education attained by the parent: the higher the level of education possessed by the parents, the less favorable are their attitudes toward Catholic education. (4) The type of school attended by the parent: parents who attended public schools are less favorable than parents who attended Catholic schools; this trend is consistent and statistically significant regardless of the amount of education possessed by the parents.

Older parents are more favorable than middle-aged or younger parents but the apparent variation in attitude with age level is due to the fact that the respective age groups differ in the amount of education that they possess. When the age groups are equated with respect to amount of education and type of school attended, there are no statistically significant differences in attitude scores.

The attitude scores of the fathers in the various occupational groups do not differ to a statistically significant degree when the influence of amount of education and type of school attended is held constant. In general, the greater the amount of education that is required for a specific occupation, the less favorable are the attitudes of those so employed. Mothers who are employed and mothers who are not employed outside their

homes do not differ appreciably in their attitude toward Catholic education.

While the grade in which the child is registered bears no statistically significant relationship to the attitudes of the parents, there is a very slight trend for the parents of children in the upper elementary and high school grades to be more favorable than the parents of children in the lower elementary grades.

The strength of favorableness of the parents' attitudes may be interpreted as indicating a considerable degree of satisfaction with the work of the Catholic schools. At the same time, certain implications can be noted with respect to those factors which are identified as partial determinates of the parental attitude toward Catholic education.

Even those non-Catholic members of mixed marriages who permit their children to attend Catholic schools are appreciably less favorable to such schools than are Catholic parents. Thus, again it is evident, that vigilance and concern must be exercised and a special effort must be made to lead parents who are members of a mixed marriage to give their children a Catholic education.

While Catholic parents are favorable to Catholic education, there is a need of further investigation of those phases of the Catholic school to which parents are opposed. If the opposition of parents is related to practices of the school which need improvement, efforts must be made to remedy such practices. If the opposition of parents is due to unjustified bias or prejudice, efforts must be made to clarify their misconceptions.

The joint influence of increased amounts of education and the type of school attended points to the necessity for educational guidance, at every educational level, which will lead those students who continue their education to do so in Catholic schools. Since attendance at public schools is accompanied by a less favorable attitude toward Catholic education, increased efforts are necessary to provide the opportunity to attend Catholic schools which are appropriate to the needs and the abilities of students at every educational level in order to safeguard the transmission of the principles and the values of Catholic education.

HIGHER EDUCATION NOTES

Cost per student above his payments rose 200 per cent in Catholic universities between 1947-48 and 1952-53, which is twice the rate of increase in such costs over the same period for nondenominational, private universities, according to figures prepared by the Council for Financial Aid to Education, Inc., and released last month in the interest of higher education for American Education Week, November 6-12. This cost in Catholic universities went up from \$75 in 1947-48 to \$225 in 1952-53; in nondenominational, private universities, it went up 100 per cent, from \$257 to \$515, while in non-Catholic, church-related universities, the rise was from \$138 to \$279, or 102 per cent.

Between 1939-40 and 1953-54, there was a rise of 74 per cent in the average faculty salary at the graduate and professional level in Catholic universities, an increase from \$3,664 to \$6,371. The increase was from \$2,683 to \$4,703 for undergraduate teaching. Average salaries at both levels were higher for 1953-54 in Catholic universities than in the other two categories of private universities. The Council's report indicates, however, that salary figures for Catholic institutions reflect estimated values on the "Contributed Services" of religious faculty members. According to figures given by Rev. John E. Wise, S.J., in an article in *School and Society* (October 1, 1955), entitled "American Catholic Schools Today," only 40.3 per cent of the teachers in Catholic universities and colleges are religious; 59.7 per cent are lay.

In Catholic colleges in 1952-53, the difference between student payment and student cost was \$239, an increase of 76 per cent over the 1947-48 figure of \$138. In nondenominational, private colleges, this figure rose 97 per cent, from \$201 to \$397; in non-Catholic, church-related colleges, it rose 103 per cent, from \$169 to \$344. The average faculty salary in Catholic colleges in 1953-54 was \$3,737, an increase of 76 per cent over 1939-40; the average salary in nondenominational colleges rose 71 per cent in the same period to \$4,245; the 1953-54 average salary in non-Catholic, church-related colleges was \$3,838, up 77 per cent since 1939-40.

The average 1953-54 salary in tax-supported colleges was \$4,878, up 96 per cent over 1939-40; in tax-supported universities, the 1953-54 average at the undergraduate level was \$5,462, up 88 per cent, and at the graduate level \$5,928, again up 88 per cent. *The New York Times* (October 25, 1955) carried a breakdown, on page C 25, of teachers' pay in New York City which showed that the average 1955 salaries of teachers in the City's colleges range from \$5,853 for instructors to \$10,193 for full professors.

Among other important items of information reported in the Council for Financial Aid's memorandum is the fact that the percentage of the country's 18-21-year-olds in colleges and universities rose from 3.6 at the turn of the century to 29.4 in 1954-55. Moreover, in the same period of time, tax-supported institutions increased their share of college and university students from 38 to 56 per cent.

DePaul University's development program got a giant boost last month in the Frank J. Lewis Foundation's gift of Chicago's Kimball Building, an eighteen-story, downtown skyscraper. Acquisition of this building will allow the University to move out of its present, crowded downtown quarters and have twice as much space to meet enrollment demands in its five downtown divisions. The 1955 fall enrollment increased 6 per cent over last year's; there is a total of 7,595 resident and non-resident students this year compared with the 7,151 of last fall.

College departments other than education are awakening to their responsibilities in the training of high school teachers. Plans for action in this direction were outlined at the annual meeting of the Council on Co-operation in Teacher Education of the American Council on Education, held last month in Washington, D.C. Representatives from the modern language, history and science fields admitted neglect in their departments of the teaching objective of students and an unwarranted emphasis on preparation for graduate study in the respective areas. Certification requirements are in for a change—and for the better.

SECONDARY EDUCATION NOTES

Emerging patterns of curriculum organization in large secondary schools are described by William G. Brink in "Patterns of Curriculum Organization in Large Secondary Schools," *School Review*, LXIII (October, 1955), 384-387. Based on a study of 252 large high schools, the report indicates that these schools offer either a multiple-type program (133 schools, or 52.78 per cent) or a constants-and-variables program (119 schools, or 47.22 per cent). The former provides two or more curriculums but allows also for election of some of the work in fulfillment of requirements for graduation. In the latter, certain subjects are prescribed for all students, while others are offered as electives.

Considerable variation was found in the number of major curriculums offered in the schools which provide multiple-type plans. The range was from two to seven, with an average of five. All provide a college preparatory curriculum; 84.21 per cent of the schools provide a commercial curriculum; 76.22 per cent, a general curriculum; 65.41 per cent, an industrial arts curriculum; 39.85 per cent a home arts curriculum; 21.80 per cent, an agriculture curriculum; 19.55 per cent, a fine arts curriculum; and 5.34 per cent, a curriculum in nursing.

The median numbers of units required, in four general-education subject areas, for graduation in the 252 schools were: English 4.05; social studies, 2.43; science, 1.18; and mathematics, 1.20. In the 133 college preparatory curriculums studied, the median numbers of units required for graduation in five academic areas were: English, 4.21; social studies, 2.97; science, 1.34; mathematics, 2.39; and foreign language, 2.24.

State accreditation practices and the standards by which schools are accredited in the several States are reported in *State Accreditation of High Schools* (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1955). Priced at only 30 cents, this bulletin of the U.S. Office of Education treats the historical development of standards, the meaning of standardization and accreditation, the State agencies which accredit, and the methods they use. Some

thirty standards are discussed and examples are included of typical statements as well as of some that possibly are indicative of trends even though they are not typical. The content of some of the more frequently recurring qualitative standards used by State agencies, such as the school program and preparation of the school staff, is analyzed. This is the first major study of State standards of accreditation by the Office of Education in over twenty years. Principals will find this little volume of great value.

Guidance in military career planning by high school students is offered in *Your Life Plans and the Armed Forces*, published last month by the American Council on Education. This book brings together in one volume for the first time the educational and career opportunities available in the military services. With the study unit, consisting of an illustrated text and workbook, there is a teacher's handbook. The study unit was tested in eleven secondary schools in the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. One copy has been sent to each senior secondary school in the United States by the American Council; additional copies may be purchased from the Council, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

For information on scholarships, principals and counselors will find Volume III of *Scholarships Fellowships and Loans* by S. Norman Feingold, published by the Bellman Publishing Company, Cambridge 38, Massachusetts, of great service. This is the third in a series of volumes on scholarships by Feingold. It contains complete information on more than eight thousand scholarships, fellowships, loans, and grants-in-aid that award more than \$10,000,000 annually. None of the data from Volumes I and II of the series is repeated in Volume III, but all three volumes are indexed in this last one. The price of Volume III is \$10; all three volumes sell for \$20.

Science Talent Search's examination period begins December 5. Examination materials may be obtained from the Science Clubs of America, 1719 N Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Three of the forty winners of Westinghouse Science Scholarships in last year's science talent search were from Catholic schools.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION NOTES

"Which of your teachers helps you most to learn" was one of the questions asked of 453 pupils in a study designed to ascertain the characteristics of the effective teacher as judged by the pupil. In the investigation, conducted by P. M. Symonds, of Columbia University, the participating seventh-, eighth-, and ninth-graders ranked their teachers on the basis of seven criteria consisting of questions similar to the one cited above. To obtain evidence concerning the validity of the rankings by pupils, the principal of the school was asked to rate the teachers involved. The correlations of pupil rankings with principal ratings of the teachers seem to indicate considerable validity of the pupils' rankings.

From these rankings, Symonds selected the seventeen teachers from the top and bottom of the list and observed them while they taught in order to try to isolate those characteristics which distinguish the better from the poorer teachers. He concluded that the following three factors seemed to differentiate the teachers in the extreme groups: (a) superior teachers liked children and showed their liking for their pupils in many ways, while inferior teachers manifested clearly their dislike for their students; (b) superior teachers were personally secure and self-assured, while inferior teachers evidenced feelings of inferiority and inadequacy; and (c) superior teachers were well integrated and possessed good personality organization, while the inferior teachers tended to be personally disorganized.

Children of Mexican migrants received their First Communion in the Diocese of Toledo toward the close of the sugar beet and tomato season in late September. Reports from six areas in northwestern Ohio where migrants encamped for seasonal jobs told of religious classes held regularly, with fifty of the attendants preparing for the reception of the Sacrament of the Holy Eucharist. More than one hundred women of the Diocese of Toledo volunteered their services as teachers. Reverend Felipe Baldonado, a Franciscan from California, acted as

director to the local volunteers. He was aided by several Spanish-speaking seminarians. Assistance to the migrants was one of the principal summer projects of the Toledo Diocesan Council of Catholic Women. Statistics on the project show that some of the camps housed as many as 350 migrants.

Visual and auditory discrimination abilities seem to be closely related to spelling abilities around the third- and fourth-grade levels but not so closely related at the seventh- and eighth-grade levels of spelling ability. It may be that for children spelling at the average seventh- and eighth-grade levels of achievement, a number of factors other than auditory and visual discrimination abilities affect spelling ability. These conclusions were reached by David Russell of the University of California after a recent study in which a comparison was made of good and poor spellers on auditory discrimination abilities, specific visual perception, vocabulary, and certain mental abilities included in the SRA Primary Mental Abilities Test.

Other results reveal that the participating fifth- and sixth-grade good spellers exceeded the poor spellers on fourteen of the fifteen measures used in the experiment. Only on the Space Test of the Primary Mental Abilities Test was there no significant difference between the good and poor spellers. These facts indicate that good spellers in these grades tend to have superior auditory and visual perception, that they score higher in reading comprehension and a wide variety of vocabulary tests, and that they are superior in perception, reasoning, and the total scores of the Primary Mental Abilities Test. Data derived from the study also seem to suggest that there is a somewhat lower correlation between spelling ability and visual discrimination than there is between spelling ability and auditory discrimination.

This study is described in full in the March, 1955, issue of *The Journal of Educational Psychology*.

Grade schoolers ask more questions about science than about any other subject, a nation-wide survey undertaken by the University of Illinois under the direction of J. H. Shores has found. The survey covered over six thousand pupils in grades four through eight, as well as parents, teachers, and librarians of these pupils.

Youngsters made twice as many inquiries about science as they did about other school subjects. Furthermore, science subjects were among the top three reading choices. According to Shores, however, schools are not making the most of this interest. The survey also disclosed an increasing need for counseling in the seventh and eighth grades where youngsters indicated more of an interest in personal problems and boy-girl relationships than has generally been acknowledged by schools. Concern with religion and ethics ranked high, too, and here again the survey revealed that schools and libraries underestimated youngsters' interests.

Individual differences are increased by effective reading instruction, writes E. Stock in *The Elementary School Journal* for May, 1955. And the better the program of reading instruction, the farther apart will be the reading levels of fast and slow learners. Furthermore, these levels will draw still farther apart from year to year and from grade to grade, and the more efficient the instruction, the farther and faster will these levels draw apart. These deductions were made by Stock after observations of school reading instruction over a period of years. He concluded that pupils capable of fast learning are being moved too slowly and that slow-learning pupils are being moved too rapidly in their developmental reading programs.

Among the specific instances cited by Stock to substantiate his observations is the misapplication of the principles of readiness. The fast learner is usually ready for reading when he enters the first grade. Yet, not infrequently, there is prolonged, unnecessary use of reading readiness materials in his case. Several results are fairly certain to follow. First, little additional readiness is gained; a pupil can be "ready," but not doubly or trebly ready. Secondly, a considerable period of time is lost.

With the slow learner, an opposite set of facts is met. Not uncommonly the slow learner comes to school at a reading level far removed from productive reading activity. Much developmental work needs to be done. A companion error of too early use of books is the tendency to go too fast with reading material when once started

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

Over 300 sisters from 87 communities attended the second annual meeting of the Eastern Region of the Sister Formation Conferences of the National Catholic Educational Association last month at The Catholic University of America. The principal address on the Conferences' 1955 theme, "The Integration of the Spiritual and Intellectual Elements in the Formation of Sisters," was given by His Excellency Most Reverend Jerome D. Hannan, Bishop of Scranton. The delegates were welcomed to the University by His Excellency Most Reverend Bryan J. McEntegart, the Rector. General and group sessions were devoted to the theme throughout the two-day meeting. Elected chairman of the Eastern Region for the next two years is Sister M. Rose Elizabeth, C.S.C., of Dunbarton College, Washington, D.C.

Two new handbooks of school policies and practices have been published by the Archdiocese of Dubuque. Endorsed by His Excellency Most Reverend Leo Binz, Archbishop of Dubuque, and prepared by Very Reverend Monsignor Justin A. Driscoll, superintendent of schools, in collaboration with the school supervisors of the Archdiocese, the contents of these two volumes, one for the elementary schools and the other for the secondary schools, present: a statement of the Catholic philosophy of education, a description of the executive organization for school administration in the Archdiocese of Dubuque, and outlines of policies relating to school management and cocurricular programs. The books bespeak thorough reflection on the implications of school administration; the high school volume is unique in the amount of detail it covers and in the wisdom of the directions it puts within arm's reach of the busy principal. Beautifully written and attractively printed, these two books are another indication of the high caliber of intelligence which is guiding diocesan school systems. The days of administration by imitation in diocesan superintendents' offices are fading all over the land.

A voluntary retirement plan for lay teachers has been inaugurated in the Diocese of Peoria. According to Rev. John Sweeney, diocesan superintendent of schools, the benefits of the plan compare favorably with the retirement plans of public school systems. The cost of the plan is split as follows: 2 per cent Social Security deduction by the school, 2 per cent Social Security deduction by the teacher, 3 per cent retirement plan deduction by the school, and 3 per cent retirement plan deduction by the teacher. Based on an annual salary of \$4,000 at age thirty-five, the plan will yield an annual income of \$1,879.76 at age sixty-five. For the same salary at age thirty-five, the Illinois public school plan yields an income of \$1,950 at age sixty-five. There is no Social Security benefit in the Illinois public school retirement plan.

The diocesan superintendents will address themselves to problems of the lay teacher in Catholic schools, problems of accreditation of teacher education, moral problems in the high schools, and problems in reading at their forthcoming Washington meeting, November 8-10. Speakers from the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare will include Marion Folsom, secretary; Herold Hunt, undersecretary; and Samuel Brownell, commissioner of education. Other speakers are: Donald Durrell of Boston University, Katherine Stefic of The Catholic University of America, Emmett A. Betts of Temple University, Thomas J. Maloney of the New Haven Public School System, and Gertrude Lewis of the U.S. Office of Education.

Piedmont's zoning law is unconstitutional, ruled the California State Supreme Court in a 4 to 3 decision last month. The City of Piedmont had barred construction of a Catholic elementary school on the basis of its zoning laws. The State Supreme Court held that discrimination against private schools made the ordinance unconstitutional. It directed that a peremptory writ be issued in the case allowing the school's construction. In final arguments last May, attorneys for the City of Piedmont argued that sufficient distinction can be drawn between private and public schools' contribution to public welfare to warrant exclusion of private schools in certain areas. Earlier the State District Court ruled void the City's refusal of the building permit.

BOOKS REVIEWS

LANGUAGE ARTS FOR TODAY'S CHILDREN by The Commission on the English Curriculum of the National Council of Teachers of English. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1954. Pp. 431. \$3.75.

This is the second volume to be completed of a contemplated series of five. Dora V. Smith acted as director and the production committee was composed of persons of equal consequence: Elizabeth Guilfoile, Helen K. Mackintosh, Aletha Beery, Muriel Crosby, Mildred A. Dawson, Grace Rawlings, Nila Banton Smith, Ruth Strickland, and Charlotte G. Wells. Who would dare raise even an eyebrow at a text under such expert authorship?

Part I, "Bases for the Language Arts Program," has as its theme the continued need of interpretation of the timeless goals of teaching language to suit the needs of the age. Writing staid little sentences about pickles, pumpkins, and peanuts, and learning to declaim "How doth the little busy bee. . . ." and the Gettysburg Address will not adequately prepare our boys and girls to live wholesomely and intelligently in an age when the whole persuasive speaking, moving, gesticulating world has ready access to their very living rooms. Children in a world that has become almost violently articulate require a program in language development somewhat different from that of the child who lived in an era when communication was handled largely via the backyard fence.

Part II, in a fairly solid and sensible manner, describes and illustrates the "Facets of the Language Arts." Teachers, young and old, will enjoy Part III, "The Program in Action," especially well because it is a successful effort in reporting *how* and *when*.

The final section, "Building and Appraising a Language Arts Program," includes a very well-stated and described list of goals for the elementary school language program and several fine suggestions for reasonable evaluation of such programs.

Throughout the text there are valuable bibliographical lists. The illustrations, on the whole, are appropriate and attractive.

Several, with particularly untidy backgrounds, might have been eliminated.

As one closes the neat volume in its salmon colored binding, one is reconfirmed in a conviction now almost universally accepted—today's children need to be heard as well as seen!

SISTER M. FRANCIS ASSISI, C.S.A.

Marian College
Fond du Lac, Wisconsin



COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION. Edited by Thomas E. Blackwell. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1955. Vol. II. Pp. xii + 267. \$4.50.

The publication of Volume II marks the end of a ten-year period in which a national committee of college and university business officers has worked to provide an authoritative statement of information on areas relating to business administration in higher education.

Volume I, covering accounting, auditing, reporting, and budgeting, was published in 1952. Volume II as a companion work considers subjects not treated in the first publication. Some of the more important topics outlined are purchasing, property and liability insurance, space utilization, student affairs, non-academic personnel, staff welfare, investment management, sponsored research administration, and legal problems.

Many new and useful ideas are incorporated in the book. The discussion on the funded retirement plan (p. 101), the chapter on research (p. 129), and the laws on taxation (p. 166) are recommended reading. Of special interest to administrators is the material on the custodial and office personnel. Labor-management relations stand to be improved if suggestions on pages 80 and 81 are given serious attention. A written personnel policy, well known and administered, and implemented through training programs, employee benefits, and other co-operative measures, will go a long way in building morale among the institutions' workers.

Student enterprises are thoroughly analyzed in the light of recent developments in student union and intercollegiate athletic programs. There is a good treatment of the college book store.

Some exploratory questions may be raised based on the usefulness and the reference character of the book. The study is an excellent outline of the major areas of business administration in higher education but offers only limited data on the methods to be employed. There is a tendency to summarize and classify to the exclusion of practical suggestions and information. The book is intended to be a business manual—and serves that objective insofar as the data are listed, defined and catalogued—but it does not provide ready and convenient references to more detailed and practical sources of information. There are no footnotes and no end-of-chapter selected reading materials. The location of the supplementary reading list at the end of the book suggests a scholarly and easy method to follow but does not implement effectively the original useful manual concept of the work.

A brief appendix contains statements on the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, The Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association, and the opinion of the General Education Board on the investment of endowment funds in dormitories. A representative bibliography, devoted chiefly to recent reports, articles, and surveys, and an index complete the volume.

The study is recommended for college and university presidents, treasurers, personnel deans, placement officers, members of boards of trustees, and to faculty members engaged in business assignments as committee members or as aids to administrative officers.

GEORGE F. DONOVAN

Department of Education
The Catholic University of America



PSYCHOLOGY OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN AND YOUTH. Edited by William Cruickshank. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955. Pp. 594. \$6.50.

In keeping with a current trend in psychology books, this one is written by a group of contributors. Included are two prominent clinical psychologists, the director of a speech and hearing clinic, and professors of psychology and of education.

This work combines scholarship with practicality. Physical

disability, measurement problems, impaired hearing, defective speech, impaired vision, crippled children, epilepsy, chronic mental disorders, mental deficiency, gifted children, and techniques of psychotherapy and play with exceptional children are discussed. Everything seems to be up to the minute, and bibliographies are unusually thorough.

The volume, more than most in the behavioral sciences, confines itself faithfully to what is empirically demonstrated. The ghosts of Pierce and Dewey can scarcely be felt. If the book has any ax to grind, it is simply to the effect that exceptional children deserve to and can live happy, productive lives. In each case, a real effort is made to see the problems of such children from an internal frame of reference, rather than trying to adjust them at all costs to the sometimes arbitrary folkways of a society composed mostly of persons who do not have the problems that go with being exceptional. The reviewer expects to use this book frequently and believes it would be a valuable addition to any educator's library.

ROBERT B. NORDBERG

Department of Education
The Catholic University of America



PASCAL AND THE MYSTICAL TRADITION by F. T. H. Fletcher. New York: Philosophical Library, 1954. Pp. 154. \$4.75.

A time when both Pascal and mysticism have been enjoying a revival, as this author points out at the beginning, is a good time for a book about both to appear. A time when the vogue of both is not too clearly distinguished from the vogue of the surrealist, the cacophonous musician, or the poet of the artificial, as he also points out at the beginning, is a good time to avoid increasing the confusion. And that is the crux of the question in judging a book like this one for if nothing is better worth writing about than mysticism, it is also true that nothing is better worth the best that can be said about it.

The crux of the question with this book, as with so many books about mysticism, is to decide whether to call it excellent or excruciating. It is entirely a question of how much we are expecting. If we are expecting the best, in information and insight,

which an agnostic intelligence at once keen and refined and reverent can give us, we should gratefully recognize that it is given to us here. If we are expecting to be put in touch with the great key distinctions and relations without which a writer on mysticism is forever missing the point by inches—the relations of natural and supernatural, of reason and faith, of asceticism and mysticism, of grace and contemplation, of charity and charism, of Christocentrism and theocentrism, of institutional religion and religious experience—we may as well be prepared to hear everything about them except the essential things. The plain fact is—and is not less plain but more plain on the level of mysticism—that for an intellect confronted with the fact of Christianity, there is no substitute for thinking and that for the whole man face to face with the whole of Christianity, there is no substitute for faith; and that without this the student of the mystics especially can only go on wading through trackless marshes of erudition for ever and ever.

If this were meant merely as a supercilious criticism of a book which has nothing supercilious about it, and which after all is written by a non-Catholic for non-Catholics, it would certainly deserve less respect than the book itself. It is better to get one real thought out of William James or Aldous Huxley than to parrot a hundred formulae from St. Thomas or Garrigou-Lagrangé; and we are not free to be more disdainful of sincerity than our Father, Who knows how to combine jealousy for His truth with prodigality in His favors. Yet the fact remains that to enter the domain of mysticism is to enter the divine darkness, where no man can go forward except on his knees, and where there is not less but more need of the guidance that can save the mystics themselves from their illusions, and can teach Pascal himself the true meaning of the grandeur and the misery of man.

PADRAIG DIGAN

The Catholic University of America

BOOKS RECEIVED

Educational

Engelhard, Sister Mary Dominic. *An Experimental Study of Arithmetic Problem-Solving Ability of Sixth Grade Girls*. Washington, D.C.: Catholic University of America Press. Pp. 72. \$1.00.

Hobson, Carol Joy. *Statistics of Public Elementary and Secondary Education of Negroes in the Southern States: 1951-52*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office. Pp. 21. \$0.20.

Index of the Bulletin of the National Catholic Educational Association. Washington, D.C.: National Catholic Educational Association. Pp. 54.

Indiana and Midwest School Building Planning Conference: Proceedings. Bulletin of the School of Education of Indiana University. Bloomington: Indiana University Bookstore. Pp. 149. \$1.00.

Jansen, Brother John J. *Personnel Services in Catholic Four-Year Colleges for Men*. Washington, D.C.: Catholic University of America Press. Pp. 258. \$2.75.

Kliebhan, Sister Mary Camille. *An Experimental Study of Arithmetic Problem-Solving Ability of Sixth Grade Boys*. Washington, D.C.: Catholic University of America Press. Pp. 58. \$1.00.

Li, Anthony C. *The History of Privately Controlled Higher Education in the Republic of China*. Washington, D.C.: Catholic University of America Press. Pp. 180. \$2.00.

Naoi, John Yutaka. *The Japanese Educational Reformation after World War II*. Washington, D.C.: Catholic University of America Press. Pp. 20. \$0.25.

Otto, Henry J., and others. *Principles of Elementary Education*. Revised edition. New York: Rinehart and Co., Inc. Pp. 455. \$5.00.

Ryan, Mary M. (ed.). *Realizing Our Philosophy of Education*. Proceedings and Addresses, 52nd Annual Meeting of the National Catholic Educational Association. Washington, D.C.: The Association. Pp. 493.

Sargent, Cyril G., and Belisle, Eugene L. *Educational Administration: Cases and Concepts*. New York: Houghton Mifflin Co. Pp. 474. \$5.50.

Stearns, Harry L. *Community Relations and the Public Schools*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc. Pp. 363. \$4.95.

General

Burton, Doris. *The Angel Who Guarded the Toys*. Chicago: Henry Regnery Co. Pp. 181. \$2.75.

Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. *Issues before the Tenth General Assembly*. New York: Columbia University Press. Pp. 160. \$0.25.

Catton, Bruce, (ed.). *American Heritage*. Vol. VI, No. 6. New York: American Heritage Publishing Co., Inc. Pp. 112. \$2.95.

Cronin, Vincent. *The Wise Man from the West*. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc. Pp. 300. \$4.50.

De Kieffer, Robert, and Cochran, Lee W. *Manual of Audio-Visual Techniques*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc. Pp. 200. \$3.60.

De Kok, Winifred. *You and Your Child*. New York: Philosophical Library. Pp. 147. \$3.75.

De la Bedoyere, Michael. *The Layman in the Church*. Chicago: Henry Regnery Co. Pp. 111. \$2.75.

Fischer, Hubert. *Einführung in den Neuen Katechismus*. Freiburg, Germany: Verlag Herder and Co. Pp. 100.

Kane, John J. *Catholic-Protestant Conflicts in America*. Chicago: Henry Regnery Co. Pp. 244. \$3.50.

Katholischer Katechismus der Bistümer Deutschlands. Freiburg, Germany: Verlag Herder & Co. Pp. 288.

Koren, Henry J. *An Introduction to the Science of Metaphysics*. St. Louis: B. Herder Book Co. Pp. 291. \$4.50.

Mary in the Liturgy. 15th National Liturgical Week, Milwaukee, August 16-19, 1954. Elsberry, Mo.: Liturgical Conference. Pp. 159. \$2.00.

Oesterreicher, John M., (ed.). *The Bridge*. A Yearbook of Judaeo-Christian Studies. Vol. I. New York: Pantheon Books, Inc. Pp. 349. \$3.95.

Price, Eugenia. *Never A Dull Moment*. Honest Questions by Teen-Agers with Honest Answers. Grand Rapids: Zondervan Publishing House. Pp. 121. \$1.00 paper; \$2.00 cloth.

Robo, Etienne. *Two Portraits of St. Therese of Lisieux*. Chicago: Henry Regnery Co. Pp. 205. \$3.00.

Sheehan, Canon P. A. *Luke Delmege*. Chicago: Henry Regnery Co. Pp. 500. \$4.50.

Steuart, R. H. J. *The Our Father*. Springfield, Ill.: Templegate Publishers. Pp. 36. \$0.75.

Van Zeller, Dom Hubert. *Giving to God*. A Year's Prayers for Young People. Springfield, Ill.: Templegate Publishers. Pp. 69. \$0.75.

NEWS OF PRODUCTS AND SERVICES

SCIENCE KITS

For effective, elementary science, use *Science Kit*. This kit, in plywood case, contains over 80 pieces. Clear, easily understood manuals that simplify preparation and assure effective classes by teachers without science training, is included. Over 50,000 *Science Kits* are now in use. For further details, write to: *Science Kit, Box 69, Tonawanda, N.Y.*

ARITHMETIC WE NEED

This new arithmetic series is outstanding in its exceptionally teachable program. It offers attractive texts, workbooks for additional development, as well as the most complete and useful Teachers' Manual ever published. Write for full information to: *Ginn and Company, Statler Bldg., Boston 17, Mass.*

CUSTOM MADE CLOAKS AND MANTLES

Custom made Sister's cloaks and mantles, Bishop and Monsignor cassocks, confessional cloaks, zimmeras, trousers and birettas are being offered by H. De Mattie Company, clerical tailors. For price list and further information, write to: *H. De Mattie Co., 53 Park Place, New York 7, N.Y.*

PORT-A-FOLD WALL POCKET UNITS

Schieber Sales Company, national sales outlet for folding table and bench products, offers a new brochure describing the company's *Port-A-Fold* wall pocket units. Write for free brochure to: *Schieber Sales Company, Detroit 39, Mich.*

POTTERY PRODUCTS

Bunting Pottery Products are sold in over 1300 Schools and Colleges throughout the United States, Canada, Alaska, etc., through College Bookstores, and have proved to be fast moving, profitable souvenir items. For information and price list on various articles, write to: *W. C. Bunting Co., Wellsville, Ohio.*

MODUWALL LIVE-WALLS

Modernize old classrooms with *Moduwall Live-Wall Installation*. These walls enable you to provide economically whatever each classroom needs in tackboard, chalkboard, shelving and other wall-hung equipment. This installation permits you to change all wall-hung equipment freely, as classroom needs warrant, thus keeping the classrooms flexible. The lovely textured tackboard is available in six pastel colors. For further information, write to: *Moduwall, 175 Fifth Ave., New York 10, N.Y.*

CAPS AND GOWNS

Caps and gowns for Kindergarten, Grade Schools, High Schools, Colleges; Confirmation Gowns for boys and girls, are available from Louis E. Stiltz & Bro. All garments are thoroughly sterilized, disinfected and pressed before shipment. Send for illustrated circular, no obligation, to: *Louis E. Stiltz & Bro. Co., Race and 4th Sts., Philadelphia 6, Pa.*

JUVENILE COURTSIPS

Now available, by popular request, reprints of the article *Juvenile Courtships*, by the Very Reverend Francis J. Connell, C.S.S.R., of the Department of Sacred Theology, The Catholic University of America. This article appeared in the March 1955 issue of *The American Ecclesiastical Review*. Write to: *The American Ecclesiastical Review, 620 Michigan Ave., N.E., Washington 17, D.C.*

NUN'S RAIN CAPE

With the assistance and approval of the Sisters, the *Habit Cape Company* has developed a perfect Nun's rain cape. Hood with adjustable drawstrings makes it adaptable for most head-dresses. It is made of new fine grade Vinylite plastic, with a dull taffeta finish . . . completely electronically sealed. For further information, write to: *Habit Cape Co., P.O. Box 5744, Philadelphia 20, Pa.*

FUND RAISING SERVICES

Thomas Richard Finn and Associates, with thirty years of experience in successful fund raising campaigns, have available a staff of thoroughly trained experts to discuss your fund raising program. They are the exclusive owners of the "Fair Share" plan. For consultation without obligation, write to: *Thomas Richard Finn & Associates, 15 West Tenth St., Kansas City 6, Mo.*

PERSONALIZED RING BINDERS

Redi-Record Products Company is featuring ring binders, desk pads, and photo albums, personalized with your school name and furnished in your school colors. An ideal gift for those at home. Write for complete School Catalog to: *Redi-Record Products Co., 598 Broadway, New York 12, N.Y.*

CUSTOM CLASS RINGS

Now, regardless of the size of the class, *Jenkins* can supply custom rings especially designed for Catholic schools, with the school name around the stone. Write for brochure with complete price information to: *J. Jenkins Sons Co., Inc., 2801 W. Lexington St., Baltimore 23, Md.*

FREE SLIDEFILMS

The free slidefilms (filmstrips) you need to supplement and vitalize your textbook teaching are listed, classified, and indexed in the New, 1955

Educators Guide to Free Slidefilms

*Authoritative — Comprehensive
— Easy to Use —*

Available for \$5.00 on 30 day approval.

Educators Progress Service
Dept. CER, RANDOLPH 10, WIS.

VAN HORNS COSTUMES

ON THE AMERICAN STAGE
OVER A
CENTURY

—•—•—•—•—•—•—
Send For Prices
—•—•—•—•—•—•—

VAN HORN & SON
THEATRICAL COSTUMES
Philadelphia 7, Pa.

Est. 1852

*Put over those instructions, Father! or Sister!
Let students SEE as well as hear.*

Liven up religion—hold interest—be clear and convincing!
Give your talks from the latest and finest **FILM STRIPS**



80 frames in color—\$7 each

Experienced instructors find illustrated lectures with instructive pictures much more interesting, clear, quick, complete and convincing than straight lecturing or informal chats. There has been a shortage of adult material, but—we have it now!—in these first strips of a new series prepared by parish priests with years of instructing experience. Increase your efficiency, Father, and reap a real harvest by ordering:

No. 1—THE EXISTENCE OF GOD

Basic introduction. Presents proofs for God's existence, the immortality of the soul, and the need of religion—in a dramatic story form.

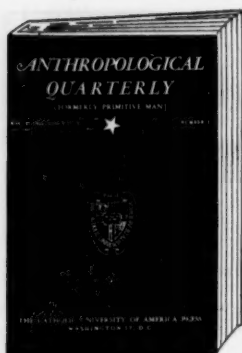
No. 2—TRADITION AND THE BIBLE (just out!)

Covers sources of revelation. Outlines in great detail tradition and the Bible as delivered to us by the Church.

All purpose—Inquiry classes, private instructions, public school Catechism classes, Catholic school religion courses, society meetings and the like.

ORDER NOW FROM THE

D. FARRELL COMPANY • 526 Marengo, Forest Park, Illinois



Send today for your copy of—

"Pygmies and Pygmoids: Twides of Tropical Africa"

By REV. MARTIN GUSINDE, S.V.D.

A reprint from the January 1955 edition of

Anthropological Quarterly

• This interesting and educational article is based on the author's original observations, and includes a complete bibliography on the "PYGMIES".

Price: \$1.00 Postpaid

Special!



Why not subscribe today to ANTHROPOLOGICAL QUARTERLY,
and receive the January 1955 issue as your first number!

(Issued Jan., April, July and Oct.)

Subscription Price \$3.00

Edited by the Dept. of Anthropology

The Catholic University of America

ANTHROPOLOGICAL QUARTERLY

620 Michigan Avenue, N.E.

Washington 17, D.C.



Nun's Rain Cape

With the assistance and approval of the Sisters we have developed the perfect Nun's rain cape. Hood with adjustable drawstrings makes it adaptable for most head-dresses.

Our cape was designed by a Nun. It is made of a new fine grade Vinylite plastic, with a dull taffeta finish. Completely Electronically sealed. No stitching whatever.

It is odorless, will not peel, stick or crack. Made in sizes; small, medium and large. We are the one and only manufacturer of the

"PLUVIALE RELIGIOSARUM"

(Rain cape of the Sisters)

AN IDEAL AND PRACTICAL GIFT

\$5.98 Postpaid in the U.S.A.

Upon receipt of check or Money Order.

(We have a special price for the Sisters. Send no money until receipt of invoice.)



HABIT CAPE COMPANY

P.O. BOX 5744

PHILADELPHIA 20, PA.

STEPHEN LANE FOLGER, INC.

Est. 1892

*Rings, Pins, Medals for
Colleges, Schools, Clubs*

JEWELERS

180 BROADWAY

NEW YORK 38

Send for our Free Catalog

A Catholic Book Service.—A thorough search for out-of-print books. Any subject or language. New and current books supplied.

Store hours: Evenings and Saturdays

6904 Roosevelt Road, Oak Park, Illinois

Direct all mail inquiries to

C. F. PETELLE

BOX 289

MAYWOOD

ILLINOIS

SENCO

RULERS and YARDSTICKS

FOR SCHOOL, OFFICE AND HOME

— manufactured by —

Seneca Novelty Co., Inc.

201-207 FALL ST., SENECA FALLS, N.Y.

TWO GREAT BOOKS—SPELLING & VOCABULARY ENRICHMENT, Grade 7 to 9a just off press, 50 cents; & 4-STAR COLLEGIATE WORD POWER, Grade 9 to 12, \$1. Order examination books today!

MARKHART EDUCATIONAL SERVICE

Preston, Idaho

CAPS AND GOWNS

for

Kindergarten

Grade, High Schools,

College

Confirmation Gowns

for

Boys and Girls

All garments thoroughly sterilized, disinfected and pressed before shipment is made.

Send for illustrated circular,
no obligation.

LOUIS E. STILZ & BRO. CO.

RACE AND FOURTH STREETS

PHILADELPHIA 6, PA.

Tel.: Market 7-3873

ART MATERIALS — CRAFT SUPPLIES

METAL ENAMELING

The perfect Craft for Catholic Schools

School Products Co.

330 East 23rd Street, New York, N.Y.

Again Available!

The Most Popular Pencil Sharpener Ever Put On The Market

because

It is the MOST EFFICIENT

It has the MOST EYE APPEAL

It is the MOST DURABLE

NOW WITH

LACQUERED BLADES!



NEARLY SIX MILLION HAVE ALREADY BEEN SOLD TO SATISFIED CUSTOMERS IDEALLY SUITED FOR ADVERTISING AND PROMOTIONAL PURPOSES

ORDER NOW FOR SCHOOL SALES—

We Can Make Shipment for your Order Immediately, or on Any Date Instructed.

AVAILABLE IN TWO UNIQUE DESIGNS:

No. T1—Bullet

No. T2—Milk Bottle

Sharpeners with Key Chain

\$21.60 per gross

Sharpeners without Chain

\$12.96 per gross

(Less 2 per cent ten days, f. o. b. Orange, Virginia)

Photograph shows display mount on which the sharpeners are usually packed. For 5 and 10 cts. stores, the sharpeners are packed on individual cards.

sold by

Clark Manufacturing Company of Orange, Inc.

ORANGE, VIRGINIA

Order today - FOR CLASSROOM USE

JUVENILE COURTSHIPS

by V. Rev. Francis J. Connell, C.S.S.R.

(A reprint from the March 1955 issue of
THE AMERICAN ECCLESIASTICAL REVIEW)



Single copy	30¢
In lots of 10	25¢ ea.
In lots of 50	22¢ ea.
In lots of 100	18¢ ea.

Prices Postpaid

Address: THE AMERICAN ECCLESIASTICAL REVIEW

The Catholic University of America

Washington 17, D. C.

A Friendly Christmas Thought

What Easier-to-Give and More Valued

G I F T

To Your Teacher Friends


Than a Subscription to

The Catholic Educational Review

Make Out Your List and Mail With Your Remittance Today

An Appropriate Gift Card Will Be Sent Out As Directed

RATES PER YEAR: U.S.A., Canada, and Foreign \$4.00



THE CATHOLIC EDUCATIONAL REVIEW

THE CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY OF AMERICA

WASHINGTON 17, D. C.

NEW BOOKS from PHILOSOPHICAL LIBRARY

[] DICTIONARY OF LATIN LITERATURE

by James Martinband

This volume deals with all periods and aspects of Latin literature from the earliest classical times, through the Middle Ages, until the Renaissance. Contains approximately 3000 articles, under individual authors (e.g. Vergil, Cicero, Horace, Ovid, Lucretius, Boethius, Bede, St. Augustine, St. Thomas Aquinas, Erasmus); works (*Aeneid*, *De Rerum Natura*, *City of God*); types of literature (epic, tragedy, satire); and related topics (religion, education, mythology, and classical scholarship, etc.). \$7.50

[] THE DECLINE OF WISDOM

by Gabriel Marcel

M. Marcel's answer to the problems he raises is certainly not a blind return to the past, of which he sees the evils as clearly as the benefits. His appeal is fundamentally to humility and to charity, for it is only on the humblest level of man's life, the level of the love of one's neighbor, that our age can be cured of its "spirit of abstraction," that is, of callousness and of pride. \$2.50

[] WORDS OF FAITH

by Francois Mauriac,
translated by Rev. Edward H. Flannery

Words of Faith contains a collection of six discourses delivered by the famous French novelist and journalist in Paris, Brussels, Madrid, Geneva, and in Stockholm on the occasion of his reception of the Nobel prize for literature. They reveal Mr. Mauriac in a new dimension of candor and moral passion; and for his devotees they provide a fresh and intimate glimpse at the man behind the writer. \$2.75

[] SANCTA SANCTORUM

by W. E. Orchard

It is nearly forty years since the author, then a young Presbyterian minister, com-

posed a little book called *The Temple: a Book of Prayers*. These consisted of prayers which had been used, as was the custom in his ministry, in the pulpit, but then, though thus carefully prepared, they were not simply read but only spontaneously recalled, and afterwards collected and revised in the light of what was remembered to have been actually expressed. \$3.50

[] CHRISTIAN ASCETICISM AND MODERN MAN

A fascinating and well documented history of Christian mortification and a consideration of how far asceticism has a place in the Church today. First the authors of this book, distinguished French theologians, doctors and psychologists, consider the traditional Christian teaching on the subject—asceticism in the new Testament, in the Patristic era, in the Middle Ages, in France in the 17th and 18th Centuries, on Carmel, etc. Then follows a theological section, comprising three chapters on various aspects of the question. The second part of this book deals largely with psychological conditions affecting the practice of asceticism by Christians of the present day. \$6.00

[] BERGSONIAN PHILOSOPHY AND THOMISM

by Jacques Maritain

A significant addition to the Maritain works available in English. \$6.00

Mail This Coupon Today

Mail to your favorite bookseller or directly to
PHILOSOPHICAL LIBRARY, Publishers
15 East 40th St., Desk No. 577
New York 16, N.Y.

Send books checked. To expedite shipment
I enclose remittance \$

NAME

ADDRESS

In answering advertisements please mention THE REVIEW

**NOW IN ITS
67th YEAR**



The American Ecclesiastical Review



This monthly publication of The Catholic University of America, with contributors of national and international reputation, is issued *cum approbatione superiorum* and ranks highest in prestige in the ecclesiastical world. It should

be on every priest's table and in every seminary and university library.



Authoritative articles on Catholic doctrine — studies in parochial and priestly problems — Developments in Catholic Action — Articles on moral questions — Historical and liturgical surveys — Answers to questions — Book Reviews and Analecta.

- Some Recent Papal Pronouncements on the Training of Teaching Sisters Bishop Joseph M. Marling
- Juvenile Courtships V. Rev. Francis J. Connell, C.S.S.R.
- Mary's Holiness in the New Testament Apocrypha Rev. Alfred C. Rush, C.S.S.R.
- Background and Highlights of Evanston Rev. John A. Hardon, S.J.
- The Holy Shroud and the Holy Face Rev. Walter M. Abbott, S.J.
- Von Hügel and Ecclesiastical Authority Msgr. Joseph C. Fenton, S.T.D.
- The Religious Ultimates of Justice Holmes Rev. John E. Coogan, S.J.
- Catholic Population Revealed in Catholic Baptisms Rev. Bernard G. Mulvaney, C.S.V.

Subscription price: U.S., Canada and Foreign \$5.00 a year
Single issues 50 cents

SPECIAL SEMINARIAN OFFER!

What better way to start in Seminary or a Newly-Ordained Priest on the path of priestly teaching and reading than a subscription to THE AMERICAN ECCLESIASTICAL REVIEW.

Special Rate for Seminarians—\$3.50 per year
(IDEAL AS A GIFT)

THE AMERICAN ECCLESIASTICAL REVIEW
The Catholic University of America
Washington 17, D. C.

In answering advertisements please mention THE REVIEW